

The Social Studies

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Continuing The Historical Outlook

November, 1938

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXIX, NUMBER 7

NOVEMBER, 1938

The Future of the Teaching of History

WALTON E. BEAN

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No one can observe the main currents in present-day education without wondering whether he is witnessing, in the secondary curriculum, what may be called the passing of the teaching about the past. With the emphasis on practical, functional knowledge, the historical method of study is gradually being discarded in favor of an overwhelming emphasis on the contemporary. When *The Historical Outlook* became THE SOCIAL STUDIES, for instance, it expressed appropriately the increasing "fusion" of "history" into courses in "contemporary social problems." Meantime, those who happen to have devoted the greater part of their formal study and their intellectual interests to the field of history may well inquire anxiously as to the educational future of the teaching about the past, and perhaps make a few humble suggestions. For they are confronted with the startling fact that, in the secondary curriculum, "history" is in danger of becoming "of interest, chiefly historical."

The steps by which this change has come about, and the various factors that influenced it, have been so well discussed in the pages of this magazine that they justify only a brief sketch for the purposes of this article. The heyday of history in the schools was, of course, in the period well up through the beginning of the present century, indeed up to the early 'twenties, when that body of *savants* of college history, the American Historical Association, had the high school teaching of the subject steadily in hand. The reports of its Committees on the Study of History in the Schools, in 1899 and 1912, and their directions for curriculum making, could be summarized as follows: "Teach as much history as you possibly can, and teach it in chronological order, starting with a year of ancient history." The reasons for imparting all these largely meaningless and promptly forgotten "facts," when any conscious reasons were given, were: a "mental discipline" theory identical with that

advanced for Latin and mathematics; moral and religious "lessons"; "patriotism," in a sense which was contradicted by the aim of "the elimination of international prejudices"; and training in the use of leisure. This last was probably the most fruitless, because most history teaching in this period simply caused the student to feel unkindly at the very word "history" for the rest of his life. Clearly, even before the modern attacks on this system began, it had assured its own downfall by its smug disregard of its own absurdities.

Perhaps the two outstanding ideas of the newer social studies curricula are their emphasis on *contemporaneity*; and their achievement of this by the *integration* or "fusion" of what study of history is left with the approaches of sociology, civics, and even English. Probably, greatest of the positive influences that destroyed history's monopoly of the study of society was the educational philosophy of John Dewey, with its insistence that education should correspond to the realities of a twentieth-century, industrialized, democratic society: that not only should education prepare young people specifically for life in that society, but that it should actually be "real life" in the meantime, and that it should reproduce, in miniature, the real-life situations that confront a citizen. Furthermore, Dewey maintained that the learning process could be effective in the first place only if the material learned was closely related to the student's own experience, interests, and desires.

This philosophy of education was associated with important developments in educational psychology. Herbart, popularized in America during the 'nineties by such men as Colonel Francis W. Parker and the McMurrys, believed not only that the interest of the student was the primary factor in the learning process, but that this interest could be exercised in learning only by understanding the interrelations of various

subjects, their correlation around some focal subject, branching out from it in a process which Herbart styled "apperception." These ideas had resulted in many attempts at "correlation" of various types of subject matter, but the idea was abused and very generally discredited. In the nineteen-twenties, however, it was revitalized. Furthermore, the behavioristic school of psychology which supported the conception of learning as a piecemeal process involving scattered and disparate facts was giving ground before the *Gestalt* or "configurationist" psychology, which pointed out that learning is a process not of analysis, but of synthesis, and that situations are grasped in their entirety or not at all. All this influenced profoundly the "integration" principle of the newer educational conceptions.

Besides these currents in educational theory, there was encouragement from an always practical-minded public, as soon as it discovered that these phases of "progressive education" were really aimed at "practicality." Fusion of history and English courses, for instance, looked superficially like an easy economy. And the "topical" or "unit" method of studying "social problems" was obviously more practical than the old, chronological, general-history treatment, since it presented material which the student might conceivably use in his own life. Important as an entering-wedge into the shell of the old curriculum was the new institution of the junior high school, free from the iron-bound college-entrance requirements. Here important work in developing the new type of curriculum was done by Harold O. Rugg and others. As Howard E. Wilson remarked: "The organization of materials in the 'traditional' courses was as encyclopedic and formal as the materials themselves were factual and academic. The social studies themselves were not socialized."¹ It was this situation which led Rugg and others in the early 'twenties, to seek to devise what they called "natural units of learning," to replace the old "block" or chronological factual method; to try to relate knowledge of the social sciences directly to the experience and needs of the student; and to consider only that portion of the past which had vital significance for and relation to the present.

During the later 'twenties, these movements began to have marked effect on the curriculum of the high school as well, and by the present decade has gained considerable influence. A Los Angeles social studies curriculum in 1934, for instance, using two-hour daily periods, fused the subject-matter approaches of English, geography, history, civics, music, and art in its seventh and eighth year course, called "The American Epic." The ninth and tenth years were devoted to

a similar study of other cultures—three semesters being devoted to *contemporary* cultures, one semester to non-contemporary. The eleventh and twelfth years turned again to the American scene, treating "Some Problems of American Citizenship" by the topical method.² One Los Angeles school (Ralph Waldo Emerson Junior High School at Westwood in 1936-37) provided an excellent example of the use of the idea that all material taught should have a basis of direct personal interest for the pupil, a sort of "springboard" of interest from something in his own personal experience. The school building was under construction during the entire year, and classes were conducted in tents, under the shadow (and the constant noise) of the construction of a modern building. Capitalizing on a situation that might have been merely demoralizing, the school officials converted it into an interesting and valuable experiment. Building their curriculum around this real, living, and immediate situation in the experience of the students, they related the English-social studies course (as well as science, mathematics, art, music, and the vocational courses) to the problems of the construction of the building, financial as well as physical. Contemporary socio-economic problems were studied as branching out from this one situation, the theory being that knowledge which has no relation to personal experience and understanding is almost entirely meaningless, useless, and immediately forgotten.

While such developments were occurring in the theory and practice of secondary education, certain changing conceptions of the nature of history and historical writing were beginning to influence the professional historians, in the colleges and outside the colleges, and to manifest themselves in acrimonious debates within the American Historical Association itself. Often, the academic historians stubbornly stood in the path of new ideas. The result was that the schools quietly went around them, and built the new curricula without their advice, their consent, and often even their knowledge. As Professor Frederick J. Teggart of the University of California remarked in his *Theory of History*, the historian is being punished for "the view that he is not concerned with such problems as the relation of history to science and philosophy, that his business is simply 'to teach history.' Unfortunately, the circumstances in which we are now placed have barred this way of escape." In other words, the time might be approaching when the schools, disgusted with the dryness of historians, would teach little or no history at all.

The attempts to revitalize history from within, then, had to come through hard-fought rebellions on the part of such men as James Harvey Robinson,

¹ Howard E. Wilson, *The Fusion of the Social Studies in Junior High School* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933), p. 145.

² T. M. Riley, "Remaking the Social Studies in the High School," *Educational Method*, XIV (November, 1934), 83-88.

Harry Elmer Barnes, Charles A. Beard, Carl L. Becker, Arthur M. Schlesinger, and Dixon R. Fox. Probably the most revolutionary of the new conceptions of history came from abroad, in the ideas of the Italian philosopher and historian, Benedetto Croce. The traditionally dominant conception, that of the German historian Leopold von Ranke, emphasized the past, and aimed at an objective, scientific accuracy in the recreation of the past "as it actually was." Croce, on the other hand, maintains that "all history is contemporary," since the facts of the past have value, meaning, and even existence, only if they become a part or extension of the *experience* of the reader, and are so artistically described that they can and will become a part of that experience. The older values of dusty accuracy in cataloguing a vast mass of dead "facts" (which dominated the older methods of teaching as well as writing history) Croce wishes to supplant with new values of beauty, interest and appreciation on the part of the reader or student,—a doctrine which corresponds with the educational philosophy of Dewey, with its emphasis on "interest" and "experience."³

In his presidential address to the American Historical Association in 1933, Charles A. Beard made a revolutionary attack on the traditional values of history as accurate objectivity, on grounds similar to Croce's. He pointed out that historical writing was not a mere recreation of the "actual" past, but was rather *thought about* the past, and that, as a form of thought, it was inevitably influenced by the individual experience and interests of the writer, and of the reader as well. Historical "truth" is relative to the mind of the perceiver, as historians should frankly admit.⁴

In the American Historical Association presidential address of 1931, called "Every Man his own Historian," Carl L. Becker insisted that written history was really only an extension of the "memory" of the individual reader, and that if it was so dryly written (however "accurate"), and so useless that it could never become a part of "everyman's" experience, it failed, as simply *bad memory*, and "everyman" would let it alone—(exactly what the secondary schools had begun to do).⁵

These ideas, of course, were in part restatements of certain phases of what the late James Harvey Robinson had emphasized in his "new history." In addition to his contention that history must become more

functional in being more interestingly written, he demanded interpretation instead of mere cataloguing of the "facts" of the past; a broadening of history's subject matter from political and military affairs to the whole economic, social, and cultural human world; a synthesis of history's methods with those of the other social sciences; and the use of the whole for the practical social betterment of man. And in spite of some reactionary protests, contemporary American historians have been steadily working toward the fulfilment of all these demands.

The influence of changing conceptions among the academic historians, and their contributions to public education, may be well illustrated by contrasting the earlier reports of the American Historical Association's Committees with its sixteen-volume *Reports of the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools*, published from 1934 to date. Where the Association's committees of 1899 and 1912 had consisted entirely of academic historians, and had dictated traditional, chronological, factual history curricula for the schools, the new commission showed a rather belated, but complete realization of the limitations put upon purely academic concepts by hard realities in the total situation of practical educational problems. It included such professors of education as George S. Counts, Franklin Bobbitt, Boyd H. Bode, Harold O. Rugg, William H. Kilpatrick, Jesse Newlon, and William C. Bagley, along with outstanding historians like A. C. Krey, John Spencer Bassett, Guy Stanton Ford, Charles E. Merriam, Charles A. Beard, Carlton J. H. Hayes, and others.⁶

On what may seem the vital issue of the whole investigation, namely whether it recommended the "fusion" of history with the approaches of the other social sciences, which would mean almost an abandonment of the "historical" approach—an abandonment of "the past" as such as a school study—the Commission tried to exercise a restraining influence:

Without wishing to emphasize what have been called "the conventional boundaries" between the several social disciplines, boundaries which have never been treated as rigid, and which have of late been increasingly and profitably cut across, the Commission repudiates the notion that any general or comprehensive social science has been created which transcends the disciplines themselves. . . . In the case of the schools, the social sciences as bodies of empirical data contain no inner logic which determines positively either the scope, the content, or the structure of social science materials to be taught.

³ For a discussion of the influence of this concept of history as experience, and thus of historical writing as an art, on recent developments in American historiography, see the present writer's article, "Is Clío a Muse?" *Sewanee Review*, XLV (October, 1937), 419-426.

⁴ Charles A. Beard, "Written History as an Act of Faith," *American Historical Review*, XXXIX (January, 1934), 219-231.

⁵ Carl L. Becker, "Everyman his own Historian," the *American Historical Review*, XXXVII (January, 1932), 221-236.

⁶ For a more complete history of the Commission and its work, see *Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission on the Social Studies*, American Historical Association, Appendix B, pp. 149 ff.

Scientific method should condition, but it cannot determine the selection.⁷

This introduces the whole question of the pros and cons of the fusion movement, indeed of the whole present emphasis on contemporary problems, the increasing abandonment of the past, and the replacing of the chronological approach by the topical or problem method of study. The advantages and the purposes of the newer methods have appeared in the above discussion of the factors that influenced their historical development. There is the psychological or learning-process advantage—that anything is better learned when its meaning is clearly and concretely understood through a relation with the pupil's personal experience and interests. This would seem to be well born out by J. Wayne Wrightstone's objective studies, administered in the form of tests to pupils under the older chronological system of history-teaching, and to other classes under the newer topical, "social studies" approach, in which the history involved was "taught backward" from contemporary problems. Carefully equating such extraneous factors as teacher ability and salary, size of class, and intelligence, age, and socio-economic background of pupils, Wrightstone found that the classes under the newer, fusion method actually retained as much of the factual material of American history, much more of European history, and still more of senior high school civics, than those under the older system.⁸ Besides the psychological, there is also the practical social advantage of the newer teaching: that the starting point is present and future social problems, rather than a study of the past for its own sake.

But it must not be assumed that the fusion program is without serious faults, that there is no serious opposition to it, or that the future gives a *carte blanche* to the new tendencies to rule the educational realm. If Wrightstone's results are to be credited, one may discount many of the frequent complaints that the new method "fails to teach the fundamentals and essentials." But the fact remains that, in the average social studies classroom, with an average teacher harried by psychological theories, the system offers unlimited possibilities of confusion and sheer waste. Perhaps the weakest link in the chain of the new teaching is the frequently used method of dividing the class into committees to study separate phases of a particular "contemporary problem." The "summarization" of the results before the class is reminiscent of the notoriously ineffective seminar method in use in the graduate schools of universities, in which a student may learn something from his own "report," but retains practically nothing from those of his fellows.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-7, 9-10.

⁸ J. Wayne Wrightstone, *An Appraisal of Newer Practices in Selected Public Schools* (New York: Columbia University Teachers College, Bureau of Publications, 1935), pp. 78 ff.

Furthermore, a very serious problem is created by the unwillingness of the colleges, particularly their history departments, to adjust their courses to the "social studies" trends. The secondary teacher finds a serious shortage of contemporary material, and usually no suitable up-to-date textbooks, because most history professors have refused to readjust their methods enough to write any, as well as because of the cost of replacing vast stocks of present history texts. As a result, the "fusion" teacher too often has to grope his way with unexplored and inadequate materials. The beginning teacher, in particular, finds that his college training in which his social science courses have been rigidly departmentalized into history, sociology, economics, and political science, has given him only a confusing preparation for teaching his "social studies" courses. As pointed out above, even the liberalized Commission of the American Historical Association expressed itself as opposed to the fusion movement, to the abandonment of specific courses in history.

The result of this disagreement is a thoroughly unfortunate situation in the present educational world—a kind of feud between the college professors of the social sciences, and the secondary schools, in which, if it continues, each side has a great deal to lose. The college historian, for instance, loses by having his subject ignored in the secondary schools, with "history" losing its identity in "the social studies." The secondary teacher loses in the respects pointed out in the preceding paragraph, through lack of coöperation and sympathy from the college professor. If, on the other hand, an effective compromise and coöperation can be worked out, the effect on both sides will be infinite improvement. The college social sciences themselves will greatly increase their fertility by emphasizing their interrelations with each other, and abandoning their old, stifling, air-tight compartments—as such historians as James Harvey Robinson, Harry Elmer Barnes, and Frederick Teggart long since pointed out.

As a matter of fact, practical realities in the work of the secondary schools seem to be quietly working toward such a compromise. Usually, the "social studies" curriculum ends by being merely a new name for much the same courses, and the whole question becomes merely a quibble over terminology. Even Professor Rugg's textbooks especially for the eighth and ninth years, can easily be classified into "history" and "civics" texts. An amusing example of this general situation occurred in the junior high school in which the writer taught last year. At the first somber meeting of the Parent-Teachers Association, the principal thought it advisable to explain that "social studies" implied no vague tinges of radicalism, but was a new name for seventh-grade geography, eighth-grade history, and ninth-grade civics.

The role of the revolt toward "fusion" in the social sciences, then, may be just this: To provide such a radical threat to the old rigid departmentalism as to necessitate valuable compromise reforms. In the end, such a solution would seem to be the most desirable for both the college and the secondary curricula. To the radical demand for a complete communization of the property of the social sciences, may be opposed the liberal reforming of the rugged individualism that still characterizes them in the colleges. Granting that better coöperation among them is essential, each of the studies does seem to have an approach which

has distinct value, and these values should not be too hastily abandoned. Indeed, the greatest fertility of the social sciences would seem to lie in a kind of *cross-fertilization* between the different approaches to knowledge, between history, civics, sociology, economics, psychology (and literature), rather than in jumbling them all together into one organism, which thus depends for its fertility on a kind of parthenogenesis. The conclusion is that history must prove her right to a continued separate existence by becoming better related to other knowledge, more interesting, and more useful to contemporary life.

World Events Since 1918

WALTER E. RAUCH

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It has become one of the cardinal principles of all modern education to stress the interrelationship of the subjects of the curriculum. Yet, in the various departments of social studies, this interrelationship is noticeably weak. Most school systems give five or sometimes six courses in this department: civics, ancient and medieval history, modern European history, economics, American history, and occasionally economic citizenship. Each of these subjects is taught as an independent unit and only rarely are they completely connected. Furthermore, many pupils take only the required courses in American history and civics. Thus most of them do not obtain any panoramic view of world events; they fail to comprehend the significance of nazism, fascism, communism, the trouble in Spain, the war in Asia; they do not understand the importance of the developments of the New Deal.

Another difficulty developing out of the present system is the problem of completing the work in two courses: modern European history and American history. Since these courses at this time include all the developments of the post war era, the actual content of each course becomes more involved and longer each year. The new material must be learned; consequently, less time must be allotted to other factors and the course becomes more hurried and less valuable each semester. It is not assuming too much to state that if current events continue to loom as important and as all engrossing within the next few years, it will be almost impossible to complete these courses in their present semester hours.

The final problem of the present situation is that many students are graduated from high schools today who cannot read a good newspaper intelligently for

various reasons. They are filled with undefined and unevaluated prejudices. They have never learned to connect the events of the world into one picture; they are still living in a period of isolation. They have never been given a real chance to interest themselves in the problems of today because they are being forced to memorize current events at great speed in order that the work of the course can be finished in the specified time.

Although there may be several solutions to this problem, I believe, the best cure lies in the creation of a new course. Whether this subject should fill one or two semesters could be left entirely within the jurisdiction of each school system, but that the course should be made compulsory would be essential. This subject, world history since 1918, would solve all the difficulties existing under the present schedule. In the first place, both the American and the modern European history courses could end with the Treaty of Versailles. These courses would then cover a definite period of time and would not become continuously more involved with each semester. In the second place, it would teach the pupils the real interrelationship of world events; they would be able to see the connection between the dictator states, Spain, and England's foreign policy, between the Russo-German relations and the war in Manchuria, between the world depression and the theories of the New Deal. In the third place, it would give the students enough time to develop a real interest in current events and thus it would teach them how to really understand a modern newspaper.

The content of this proposed course could never be static. It would have to change with each semester. However, some of the following units would un-

doubtedly be included although their respective weight would vary:

- (a) The League of Nations—organization, success, and failure.
- (b) Movement for Disarmament—the various conferences, the proposals, the reasons for failure.
- (c) Reparations and War Debts—basis of international exchange, the amount of the various debts and an interpretative explanation as to the reasons for non-payment, America's stand on the reparation question.
- (d) Period of World Depression—possible causes, results, and cures.
- (e) Dictator States—the rise of nazism and fascism, an explanation of the meaning and a detailed analysis of the development, and

the story of Franco in Spain.

- (f) Soviet Russia—discussion of the revolution and the work of Kerensky, Trotsky, Lenin, and Stalin.
- (g) South America—short summary of the development of the South American Republics, politically, economically, and socially.
- (h) Problems in Asia—the conflict between China and Japan, the Manchukuo affair, the Russo-Japanese conflict.
- (i) Recent American History—complete study of American progress since 1918 with special emphasis upon the legislation of the New Deal.
- (j) Progress of Science—general discussion of all scientific development with a possible emphasis in the field of mechanics, especially in aviation.

Reading Newspapers and Magazines

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The traditional purposes of teaching the social studies have been critically examined recently. One resulting major change is concerned with the direction of study activities. Progressive teachers now plan for a wide variety of learning activities and realize the necessity of giving pupils training in carrying them out effectively and economically. The ability to read newspapers and periodicals is a study procedure of permanent value for the high school social studies pupil. A specific unit for teaching this particular procedure is here submitted.

UNIT OF INSTRUCTION ON THE USE OF NEWSPAPERS AND MAGAZINES

LEARNING OBJECTIVE

*Ability to read newspapers and magazines
intelligently*

Presentation

Not only are newspapers the recorder of current history, but they also exert a great influence on matters of government. Press, government, and people interact on each other. Both government and press are ultimately dependent upon the people. The government must use the press to reach its citizens. The press must use the government to secure the political news demanded by its constituency. If the majority of people receive the bulk of their knowledge of world events from a daily journal and if that knowledge influences their vote and their vote influences the

government, then the press is indispensable to both people and government. It becomes the monitor of public opinion by which the machinery of the nation is vitally affected.

Newspapers do not, however, always print the truth. The newspaper's value as an indicator of public opinion is affected by propaganda, by advertising interests, by dominant industries, and by the partisanship and training of its editors. Everyone, then, should read the newspapers, but a student should read news critically and intelligently.

News also appears in magazines, publications issued usually at regular intervals, commonly either every week or every month. Magazine articles thus are more carefully written than newspaper articles because more time has elapsed since the event occurred and more time is put on the writing of the reported event. For this reason, it is advisable that the pupil become acquainted with various magazines and form a habit of reading them along with newspapers as a means of obtaining news accurately.

A student should become familiar with the different parts of a newspaper, form the habit of reading newspapers regularly, and develop ability in reading them intelligently. He should become acquainted with some of the best magazines for use in social studies classes and evaluate their content, using it for various purposes. Both of these practices are invaluable to the good student.

Exploratory Test

Directions: Place a plus (+) sign in front of the statements that are true and a minus sign (—) in front of the ones that are false.

1. Newspapers are one of the most powerful means of creating public opinion.
2. All newspapers in a city will tell the same news with the same emphasis.
3. One way to judge a newspaper's reliability is by determining the truthfulness of its headlines.
4. The most significant news column in a newspaper is the first one at the right hand side of the front page.
5. Headlines are for the purpose of catching a reader's attention.
6. A signed article is one expressing the writer's own opinion and conclusions.
7. Reporters are highly trained, professional men that seldom make mistakes.
8. All that happens in the world of any social, economic, or political importance is published in every daily paper.
9. Editorials are articles expressing the author's views on current events.
10. All newspapers are reliable sources from which to draw facts.
11. Most newspapers are partisan in their reports of political and economic news items.
12. Most people read newspapers that mirror their own opinions and tastes.
13. Newspapers are published for the sole purpose of educating the public.
14. Periodicals usually contain more correct accounts of news events than do newspapers.

GUIDESHEET

FUNCTIONS OF THE NEWSPAPER

The primary purpose of the newspaper is to furnish news and editorial discussions; the secondary one is to supply useful information and entertaining reading matter. These results, however, are accomplished with small cost to the reader only by reason of the fact that the newspaper is a valuable purveyor of advertising publicity. Because the newspaper reaches almost every home in our country every day, it is probably the most powerful agent in the world in directing public opinion. Because it holds so strategic a position, the newspaper has a great obligation to fulfill to the public.

On the one hand a newspaper is a private business enterprise concerned with the manufacture, distribution, and sale of a commodity; and, on the other hand, it is an institution of society, the freedom of which is guaranteed by the federal Constitution. As a business, it is influenced by the economic trends of the times;

as an institution, it is affected by current social and political ideals. Its success as a business is measured in terms of profit; its success as a social institution is determined by the character of the information furnished its readers.

CONTENT OF NEWSPAPERS

News is defined as the immediate record of the most interesting, important, and accurate information obtainable about the things man thinks and says, sees and describes, and plans and does. Facts about these are obtained quickly by means of press associations. The Associated Press is one of the cooperative associations of newspapers owned by its members for the purpose of exchanging news among themselves.

Classification of news. As it appears in a newspaper, news can be classified as special news and general news. The special news consists of society news, finance items, sport articles, etc., each type being placed in a particular section of the paper. General news is the type that is arranged without regard to subject.

According to the locality supplying the news, the news is known as local, state, national, and foreign news. Occasionally, newspapers put a summary of news under these headings in a special column on the front page.

News pages themselves are sorted also on the basis of importance. Page one of any newspaper is the most important news page, the place for the best news. Next in rank comes page three, because it is the page that the reader sees as he opens a paper. Following comes page two, the "turn page," and the other odd numbered pages alternating with the even numbered pages, which are always to the left. In cases where a newspaper has a "second front page," generally the last page of all or the first page of a second section, this takes high rank as to news importance.

The news columns have important ranks as well as do the news pages. The last, or right hand column, of page one is the position used for the most important news story. Next in rank is column one. The last column is called the "turn column," as stories that begin there naturally continue on the first column of page two without "jump" headlines to continue them. The other columns rank in order across the page.

Headlines. By presenting conspicuously in large type the important facts of the story which it precedes, the headline serves at least three purposes:

1. It makes possible rapid reading of a summary of the news of the whole world.
2. It attracts the reader's attention to the news story to which it is attached.
3. It becomes an advertisement of the news that invites purchasers.

Since many persons read only the headlines of much of the news, the character of the information given in these is important.

The news article. The news story is made up of two parts, known as the lead and the body. Of the two the lead is easily the more important. It consists of the opening paragraph in the news story. It contains the important facts and gives all the essential details first. These details are usually summarized answers to the questions "who," "what," "when," "where," and "why?" The usual method of development of the rest of the news story is to state the facts in reverse order of occurrence, ending with details which are interesting, but ones which might have been omitted without destroying the force of the story.

Types of news stories. The simplest sort of newspaper work is the straight news story. It aims at nothing more than presentation in narrative form news about accidents, petty crimes, meetings of organizations, outlines of careers, social function, etc. Newspapers also contain feature stories and human interest stories.

The editorial page. The editorial page of the newspaper is most often devoted to the formal statement of the paper's platform, to daily editorials on matters of local, state, national, or international concern. These editorials discuss political, civic, religious, educational, and economic affairs. Where intellectual honesty is the policy of the editors, the editorials are of immeasurable value.

For the purpose of meeting changing conditions of today every effort has been made to adapt the editorial page to the needs of present-day readers without destroying its power of moulding public opinion. To this end exhaustive and lengthy editorials yield, first to short, crisp paragraphs that give the editor's comment in approximately two hundred words; and second, to a less significant type of editorial. Other features are added consisting of articles on manners, a bit of verse, a reader's forum, and a cartoon that interprets the news. In this new guise the editorial page has become diversified.

The editorial. The editorial is the instrument by which the newspaper moulds public opinion. The editorials in a newspaper at any one time are based upon the chief news items of the day, and they aim to sum up the facts in such a manner that the readers of the paper will be of the same mind in regard to these facts as the editorial staff. When the news concerns a highly debatable issue, straight argument is used; but commonly the more unobtrusive methods of persuasion are employed. All editorials must be timely, interesting, authoritative in basic information, and trustworthy in the expression of balanced judgment and intelligent opinion. An editorial is composed of three parts: (1) the statement of the facts, (2) its exposition, and (3) the deduction therefrom.

Political prejudice or preference often governs our choice of the newspaper we read regularly. It is the best practice, however, to form the habit of reading some papers which hold views other than our own, for the purpose of acquainting ourselves with both sides of political and other issues. In reading the editorials of any paper the following tests are applicable:

1. Is the editorial sincere?
2. Does the editor know the facts of the case?
3. Does the editor's attitude seek to stimulate intelligent discussion of public affairs?
4. Do the platform and the editorials encourage civic improvement?

The answers which each newspaper gives to such questions as these will afford the critical reader a basis for evaluation of its merits.

MAGAZINES

Keeping abreast of the news is made possible today through the reading of current event magazines. Periodicals devoted to a review of current events serve much the same ends as newspapers in that they deliberately aim at moulding public opinion. While they cannot reflect the news of the world so readily as the newspaper, they can sum up the significance of the news events and help the reader gain a perspective that the daily paper cannot give. For that reason they are indispensable. There is a wide variety of types among the current event magazines. This variety is due in part to differences in political and social attitudes, in part to the primary objectives of the journal, and in part to the style of the make-up.

MAGAZINE REFERENCE GUIDES

As the weekly or monthly magazines accumulate and are bound into volumes, they form a reference shelf of immense value. The record of history in the making is written in the accounts of political, social, and economic events of importance. Occasions for using this source of information are innumerable. Yet because there are so many different magazines, each different in its method of organizing its content, the task of finding exact references seems almost hopeless.

Of all the indexes the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* is the most valuable. It indexes over one hundred of the most used magazines, a few annual reports, and some reference books and pamphlets that appear in series. The list of magazines indexed from 1900 to the present appears in the front. The index is cumulative monthly, quarterly, annually, and three-to-five-year combinations. The contents is arranged alphabetically by authors, by subjects, and by titles. The information about each consists of:

1. Title of the article.
2. Author's name.
3. Abbreviated title of the periodical.

4. Exact date of the magazine.
5. Volume.
6. Inclusive pages of the reference.

Cautions in reading newspapers and periodicals.

Practice in the use of current event magazines and in reading the newspapers will tend to make you more efficient in grasping the news for what it is worth. However, a few cautions can be stated for safety:

1. Read more than the headlines.
2. Guard against partisan newspapers.
3. Note the difference between fact and opinion, between proof and assertion, and between an account of an eyewitness and an account based on rumor or hearsay.
4. Look over papers presenting different points of view and read one or more of the better weekly or monthly periodicals as a check of the content of the newspapers.

WORKSHEET

EXERCISE I. *Reading a newspaper.*

A. Studying the content of a newspaper.

1. Secure two copies of the same issue of a good daily. Cut out the news matter and classify it as:
 - a. Foreign news.
 - b. National news.
 - c. State news.
 - d. Local news.
2. Arrange the remainder of the content of this daily under the following possible headings and other necessary ones:
 - a. Editorials.
 - b. Advertisements.
 - c. Human interest stories.
 - d. Feature articles.
3. Place in large envelopes (all of one size) the articles under each heading. Label the envelopes.
4. Read carefully the items in your local news envelope and list five possible news sources.
5. Lay out all the local news items on a table and measure in inches the space allotted to each one. Decide upon the basis of (1) the importance of the news, and (2) the probable interests of readers of the paper why the space allotment was given to the longest five articles.
6. Study the state news (or domestic news that isn't local or national), writing the headlines from five articles that are about "government and politics."
7. Select one article of international news. Label the headline, the lead, and the

body of the article. From the lead write answers to the questions (1) who, (2) where, (3) what, (4) why, (5) when.

8. Study the articles concerning national government, arranging them according to subject matter. From how many points of view is each subject treated?
 9. Examine and classify the editorials. Choose an argumentative, a persuasive, and an expository editorial. Label the three parts of the argumentative editorial.
 10. Answer the questions that test an editorial (as given on the guidesheet).
- ##### B. Reading more than one newspaper.
1. Find the following points concerning three or more daily papers of one large city: (1) name of paper, (2) circulation, (3) party leaning, and (4) platform.
 2. Interview five adults, inquiring the name of the daily each prefers and his reason for reading it.
 3. Secure a news article from a daily, a weekly, and a monthly publication. Write three facts that are the same in each of the three clippings. List two differences of facts that appear.
 4. Give a reason for reading regularly the three types of publications along side of each other: (1) a daily paper, (2) a weekly periodical, and (3) a monthly magazine.
 5. From each of two newspapers of a certain city, clip two of the longest news items concerning law enforcement. Label each clipping with the name and date of the newspaper from which it is taken and paste them on a page. Below each write a short account that includes answers to as many of these questions as possible: (1) Is the item based upon fact or opinion? (2) Is the item the account of an eyewitness or of some one else? (3) Is the headline accurate, and (4) Why was the article published?
 6. Compare an editorial on the same subject from each of two or three papers. Why is there a difference of opinion about the same matter by the editors?
 7. Compare the editorial attitudes of at least four weekly current event magazines.
 8. Make a list of the possibility of errors in news reports.
 9. From two different dailies from the same city count the column inches which

treat local, state, national, and foreign news.

10. Make a collection of ten headlines from a large newspaper. Try to find differences between these and similar ones in another daily.

II. Learning how to use and evaluate a magazine.

- A. For any current event magazine listed in your school library secure the following data:

1. Name of the magazine.
2. Frequency of publication.
3. Price per year.
4. Publisher.
5. Place of publication.
6. Name of editor.
7. Date of number examined.
8. Names of three important articles and their authors.
9. Names of two special departments or sections.
10. Description of number and kinds of illustrations.
11. Kind of reader interested in the magazine.
12. Evaluation of the magazine.

- B. Compare the following information about any two periodicals dealing with current affairs: (1) international news and (2) national news.

III. Using the *Reader's Guide*.

- A. For finding and interpreting a reference.

1. By using the *Reader's Guide* find a reference to the political parties in the United States.
2. Copy the reference as it is written.
3. Look in the lists of abbreviations in the front of the guide for full name of the magazine and explanations. Explain your reference by giving title, author, full name of the magazine, volume number, page number, and date.
4. By consulting the list of bound magazines in the school decide whether the reference is in the library. Write a very brief summary of the content of the article.

- B. For making a bibliography.

From the *Reader's Guide* list all references to some subject social science topic assigned you for a report.

STANDARDS OF ATTAINMENT

1. Know the different subjects treated in a newspaper.
2. Recognize news as classified news and general news.

3. Be able to find in a newspaper the news relative to social science.
4. Use the newspaper as a source of information on current affairs.
5. Understand the reasons for the errors and for the bias in newspaper content.
6. Develop the habit of evaluating critically the content of newspapers.
7. Know the purposes of editorials.
8. Acquire a technique for reading news articles, reading more than the headlines.
9. Develop the habit of comparing news in one daily paper with that in other dailies.
10. Be skillful in finding articles on special subjects in magazines through the use of periodical indexes.
11. Form the habit of reading the best magazine regularly.
12. Become familiar with the magazines most useful in the field of social science.

MASTERY TEST

Direction: Place a check in front of the group of words that makes the statement the *most* accurate.

1. A major function of newspapers is to:
 - a. Gather news.
 - b. Educate its readers.
 - c. Create public opinion.
2. Headlines are for the purpose of:
 - a. Catching the reader's attention.
 - b. Increasing the circulation of the paper.
 - c. Summarizing a news article.
3. One way of judging a paper's reliability is by:
 - a. Determining the character of its headlines.
 - b. Meeting its editor.
 - c. Scanning the advertisements.
4. Most people read newspapers that:
 - a. Uphold the Democratic party.
 - b. Reflect their own opinions.
 - c. Favor the abolition of crime.
5. Newspapers as compared with magazines report news in a manner:
 - a. More authentic.
 - b. Less accurate.
 - c. Equally valuable.
6. The most important news article on the front page of newspaper occurs in:
 - a. Column one at the right hand side of the paper of the first page.
 - b. Column one of the editorial page.
 - c. Column one at the left hand side of the front page.

7. In a news article the least important details are placed:
 - a. At the beginning of the article.
 - b. In the last paragraph of the news report.
 - c. In the lead below the headline.
8. Most of a paper's news is obtained:
 - a. Through well-educated correspondents.
 - b. By the Associated Press.
 - c. Through correspondents in news collecting agencies.
9. It is wisest to believe only news items that are:
 - a. Based on facts.
 - b. Rumored.
 - c. Reported by a sole eye-witness.
10. Newspaper editorials are:
 - a. News summaries.
 - b. Signed news articles.
 - c. Articles containing the expression of the editor.
11. Errors in newspapers' accounts are chiefly due to:
 - a. Haste of their preparation.
 - b. Poor printing machines.
 - c. Capitalistic influence.
12. Cartoons reflect:
 - a. Whims of the editor.
 - b. Political beliefs of the cartoonist.
 - c. The policies of the paper in which they are printed.
13. The news policies of certain papers are strongly influenced by:
 - a. Advertisers.
 - b. The "Voice of the People."
 - c. Their correspondents.
14. Probably the most useful index to periodicals is:
 - a. *Poole's Index*.
 - b. *The International Index*.
 - c. *The Reader's Guide*.
15. A student of the social studies should:
 - a. Seldom read newspapers.
 - b. Never read more than the headlines.
 - c. Study the content of at least two papers presenting different points of view.

A Guidance Program in a Small High School

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A guidance program is not an innovation to our public school system. The need for such a program in every high school is becoming increasingly apparent. The story of the fifty freshmen entering high school, and the same group four years later numbering thirty graduates, perhaps is a familiar one to all members of the teaching profession. Behind the mortality figures, however, is a more serious and complete picture with significant implications in meeting the problems of the secondary school. Year by year the mortality rate of this entering freshman class increases, and even among those who graduate a certain percentage seem far from having achieved an acceptable standard.

What explanation are we offering for what seems to be training of a negative rather than a positive sort? What part will a guidance program play, and what type of program is needed?

At the very outset let me say that I think the work of each individual teacher with her daily classroom recitations must necessarily become an increasingly important part of the general high school guidance program. No program, in my opinion, will rise above

the teachers who administer it, and nothing can do more to enhance the success of pupils in school than a keen and alert teacher who can and will respond freely and correctly to the varying problems of the individual pupils, as they arise daily within the classroom. This type of teacher is a far cry from the one who drives all her flock down the road in the same path, though the step of one member does not fit that of another.

A guidance program, therefore, begins with the teacher who must become guidance conscious. Once this is accomplished the machinery for such a program can be set up.

At the outset, the school organization becomes an important factor in a guidance program. I recommend the 6-3-3 organization in our own particular situation as the best for an organized guidance program.

Then too, the curriculum should permit some flexibility. Some portion of each curriculum, if this is at all possible, should be left unprescribed for the pupil to fill out by selection of his own guidance by school and home. Further, the curriculum content

becomes important in a guidance program. A subject field should be taught on a level difficult enough to challenge reasonably a pupil, but not on a level so difficult as to be beyond his grasp.

Curriculum revision, therefore, is needed in the light of child needs, interest, and experiences, to meet the ever changing demands of society. This may, however, be done within the framework of the traditional subject groupings, or it may give way perhaps to the latest trend and provide real-life situations or the unit of human experience, as the basis for reorganization.

We must not fail to emphasize the teaching of specific skills, information and knowledge, for their acquisition, becomes the foundation of learning. If a child is to solve a problem, he will need skills, information and knowledge with which to do so. In adult life the one who can offer the best solution to a problem is generally the one who has the most facts about the problem, and who has specific skills enough to make a practical application of facts acquired. Any guidance program, therefore, which considers curriculum revision, should recognize these facts. It seems folly to try to teach a pupil, for example, geometry or chemistry when he does not know elementary arithmetic or science, just as it seems folly to teach French to pupils who cannot read and write correct English. I am convinced that a great many failing grades given in our high schools are due to the fact that both the content and methods of presentation of the subject matter fields are not properly adjusted to teaching on the secondary level, certainly for the lowest one-third of the class. Proper adjustments can be made without falling prey to the charges of lowering standards or sugar coating the work. In fact, any adjustments, or program of guidance, which enables a pupil to do better a standard of school work commensurate with his ability, in my opinion raises, instead of lowers, the standard of the secondary school.

It is with the above principles in mind that we have inaugurated our guidance program. We aim at a modification of curriculum content and of classroom methods, in order to adjust in a better way our school program to the common needs of our pupils. A questionnaire given to our present senior class asking its members to state what they expect to do next year discloses the following:

Attend college	1
Go in training	4
Look for a job	10
Farm	4
Stay at home	2
Join the Navy	2
Continue commercial courses	1
Total	24

During their high school career much of the school time of these pupils was devoted to such subjects as algebra, geometry, shorthand, physics, chemistry, French, and others.

Approximately one-third of the time spent in high school by this class was given to subjects which make a questionable contribution toward the development of these boys and girls into better American citizens. Why not substitute in place of our present program, one which includes agriculture, vocational guidance, home economics, art, arithmetic and practical mathematics, two or three years of general science, greater emphasis on social studies; a program of English that will teach pupils to read, speak, and write correctly; and also elementary business training, and hobbies?

The guidance program that we have set up, we recognize as incomplete and experimental. We hope that the results will be sufficiently gratifying to justify an expansion of our program.

The first step in the program was testing. The Otis self-administering tests of mental ability, and the Otis and Orleans standard elementary graduation achievement tests were given to all members of the Freshman B section. The lowest I.Q. of the group was 81—the highest was 110. The median I.Q. of the group was 95. The highest score on the comprehension test was 125, the lowest 69. The median score of the group was 100, while the standard median was 135. While the testing program was carried further than the one section, we anticipated too much administration difficulty if we tried to deal with the entire group. A home study questionnaire was given to the group by which we ascertained many facts about the home life of the pupils that the guidance committee should know.

In the first place seventeen out of the twenty pupils taking the questionnaire were bus pupils, living anywhere from one and a half to five miles from school. It is impossible for teachers to have access to these pupils before or after school for remedial work. Ten of the pupils reported that they worked before school, the time spent at work ranging from thirty minutes to three hours. The nature of the work was confined to the household or barn. Sixteen out of the twenty pupils reported that a daily newspaper came into the home and the same number reported that magazines (mostly farm papers) were received in the home regularly. Seventeen pupils indicated that they had a quiet place to study at home, and eight of them said that some member of the family could help them with their school work. In nineteen out of twenty cases, pupils said their parents wanted them to go to school. In most cases both parents are living.

Seventeen of these pupils reported that they like to go to school. They like English and algebra best of the subjects they are taking and general science

least. It may be stated here that both English and algebra have been broken down to the intellectual and achievement level of this group. The result of this adjustment is reflected in the fact that only five out of the twenty had any failing grades on their mid-year reports. Most of these pupils indicated that they had time enough in school to do most of their school work when they really used it. The large majority of these pupils come from farm homes, but only two indicated that they expected to farm later in life. The questionnaire also contained many other questions involving too much detail to deal with here.

The testing program, as indicated, was composed of three parts; namely, the intelligence test, the comprehension achievement test, and the home study questionnaire. The B section was then allowed to drop its regular history class, and a program of six periods a week, leading into the fields of arithmetic and science, reading, spelling and grammar, and present-day social problems, was substituted. This work is carried on by three teachers each devoting two periods per week to the program, but the whole is coordinated and grows out of one big project.

The program begins with a unit in the social studies on the general subject of housing. This unit of work impresses me as being both timely and meaningful to any pupil. Our government is now attempting to deal with the housing problem on an organized basis, for the first time in its history. Out of this unit grow many problems of first hand importance to any special group. To name a few of them, we can suggest a study of the Federal Housing Authority, good and bad homes in Carroll county, city housing and rural housing, housing in its relationship to crime, disease, education, recreation, labor, and business recovery, history of housing both local, state and national, as well as a brief survey of ancient housing, community planning, and many other related problems. This then leads properly into the fields of science and mathematics, and to the study of landscaping, designing, art, building material, construction, borrowing and repaying, and many other subjects.

As has already been indicated this work begins with the social studies teacher. Field trips are planned and the work is informal. The pupils see, read, and talk about housing and related problems. The English work is centered around what they are doing in the social studies class. It provides the motive and incentive for much of the oral and written English, spelling, punctuation, and appreciation. From here the science teacher transfers the pupils interest to the scientific phases of housing. The project here consists of the actual construction of a miniature modern dwelling. The class also photographs and develops many pictures of various housing problems and projects. The general outline of the unit will follow at

the end of this article.

The next part of our guidance program deals with the honor roll pupils. These pupils are organized into a debating club, for the purpose of studying social and economic problems. This group naturally deals with these problems on a more advanced scale. Emphasis is placed upon reading, especially vocabulary and comprehension. The meetings are informal; reading is done, material collected, and questions are raised and discussed both in oral and written form.

Another aspect of our guidance program deals with students who have a failing grade on their mid-year report card. These pupils attend two remedial classes per week and are placed under teachers who teach the subject field in which they need most guidance. Here they receive special help in subject matter and how to study. Already very favorable results have appeared from this aspect of the program.

The final part of the program deals with physical education for all. Students may play basketball in the gymnasium, volley ball, badminton, or ping-pong in the assembly room. This is conducted under teacher supervision and all pupils have a chance to participate.

We hope that our program might be the beginning for a broader one next year to meet the needs of our pupils, thereby reducing the number of withdrawals and consequently making their school life worth more to them and to us.

GUIDANCE PROJECT UNIT IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Housing

- I. Introductory:
 1. What is meant by housing.
 2. Housing in general in the United States.
 3. Climate and location in their relationship to housing.
- II. Why is Uncle Sam interested in housing and what is he doing about it?
 1. Study of FHA and USHA.
 2. The place of such a program in Carroll county.
- III. History of Housing:
 1. In New Windsor.
 2. In Carroll county.
 3. In the United States.
 - (1) Indians.
 - (2) Colonial forefathers.
 4. In the world.
 - (1) Cave dwellers—Lake dwellers.
 - (2) Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans.
- IV. Study of Carroll County Housing:
 1. Slums.
 2. Average home.
 3. Farm homes.
 4. New construction.
 5. Hotels—boarding houses.

6. Comparison with city housing.
7. Why we have good and bad homes in Carroll county.
- V. Study of Housing in the United States:
 1. City housing.
 - (1) Slums caused by industrialization.
 - (2) Wage and hour legislation.
 - (3) Labor organizations.
 2. Rural housing.
 - (1) Farm Homes.
 - a. Financial conditions of farmers.
 - b. Cotton South.
 - c. Government aid.
 - (a) Federal Land Bank.
 - (b) Farm Security Administration.
 - (c) Soil conservation program.
 - (d) History of government assistance to farmers.
 - (2) Miners' Homes.
 - a. Government aid to miners—Guffey Coal Act.
- VI. Modern Trends in Housing:
 1. The old and new homes.
 2. Size—shapes—materials.
 3. Landscaping and designing.
 4. Community planning—Greenbelt.
- VII. Uncle Sam Assumes Housing as One of his Problems:
 1. Social problems arising out of poor housing.
 - (1) Crime.
 - (2) Disease and health.
 - a. Sickness insurance.
 - b. Public medicine.
 - c. United States Food and Drug Administration.
 - (3) Home life—divorce.
 - (4) Education.
 - (5) Recreation.
 2. Poor housing and economic problems.
 - (1) Labor.
 - (2) Rents.
 - (3) Building in its relationship to business recovery.
 3. Electricity in more homes.
 - (1) Tennessee Valley Authority.
 - (2) Government power program.
- VIII. Democracy at Work:
 1. Where does Uncle Sam's housing money come from?
 2. Why should Uncle Sam help you provide a better home for yourself?
 3. Is a democratic form of government supposed to go that far for people.
 4. Suppose the people fail to pay Uncle Sam back?
- IX. Summary.

No Compromise!

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The growth of the totalitarian states coincident with a severe economic depression has challenged the very foundations of our national life. Of all the groups in the United States, teachers of the social studies more than any other have felt the challenge of the foreign ideologies. This is rightly so, for these teachers have a real obligation of instilling into the minds of American youth the great democratic principles under which we live, with a view to insure their permanence.

This desire on the part of social studies teachers has become so strong and so insistent that there seems to be a growing spirit in the profession to adopt some of the same means and methods that have proved so effective in the totalitarian states in order to secure the end result of loyalty to our democratic ideals. The argument is heard that we must indoctrinate our youth with the value of democracy. We must build up emotional loyalties. We must fight fire with fire. Propagandize for

democracy if you will. To a believer in our form of government and its basic principles, at the first glance, this might seem a very fine program. To the professional patriot it is excellent. To the vested interest with a stake in the *status quo* it is perfect. In reality it is the death knell of democracy.

The one great advantage—the supreme attribute of democracy—is the fundamental concept that the human mind in the mass is able to reason. Man is a rational animal, and can, on his own instigation, solve the problems of social living.

With this as the basis of democracy, true education for democracy must include first a knowledge of what is implied in democracy, its forms and its methods; also training in the art of social reasoning, that is, choosing the best course of action from the many suggestions presented. All are the responsibility of the school, particularly the latter.

The use of indoctrination and emotion are the antithesis of training in reason. They are as incom-

patible as day and night. To indoctrinate first and then develop critical reasoning is impossible, unless the indoctrination is used as the horrible example. To claim to be able to indoctrinate critical reasoning is ridiculous. *Learning* is the result of *doing*. In order to develop critical reasoning it is necessary for the students to perform critical reasoning. The task of the American schools is to present a fair and complete collection of the facts, and to permit the pupil to do his own reasoning. It is the further duty of the school to train the pupil so that he will examine his own thinking critically, in order to train him to guard against emotional mind-sets, and pressure from any source—even the teacher. Emotionalized indoctrination has no place in this training.

As the people of our country develop this faculty of critical reasoning, democracy moves towards perfection as a way of life. As a people fail to develop the power of social reasoning they are reduced to an organized mob, willing to follow the first "crackpot" that appeals to their emotions.

The dangers inherent in the use of indoctrination and emotion at the expense of the development of the individual's reason are terrific in scope. In the first place, if such a program were successful in our schools, very soon our people would be left to flounder in the democratic boat without the oars of reason necessary to navigate it. How could a government whose operations are designed on the premise that its members are able to do some clear thinking function when its people are unable to think and reason? We cannot emotionalize the tariff question. May heaven protect us from ever trying to settle the labor problem by emotion. Can we ever hope to solve technological unemployment by dragging some shibboleth out of the past? The answer is obvious.

The paradox of the method of indoctrinating democracy through emotion is the fact that it does not insure permanence. From a training of indoctrination and emotion our students will be made susceptible to any glittering propaganda that comes their way since they will have lost the true power of critical appraisal. The totalitarian states have the advantage of being able to indoctrinate and play on emotions both in school and out. If we indoctrinate for democracy in our schools we must include the concept of free speech. Our students will leave school to find communists, and other groups parading under the right of free speech the right to emotionalize and indoctrinate. If these vocal groups succeed, we who also indoctrinated will realize our fault too late.

By using such methods, not only is it possible that we would be placing our future citizens in the grasp of foreign "isms," but even worse, by emotionalizing the concepts of America's past, we would be leaving the field wide open for the lunatic fringe.

Unscrupulous demagogues, parading in the guise of patriots, could whip our people to a frenzy by using some of the concepts that the schools had so carefully emotionalized and indoctrinated. The greatest threats to our democracy in the past have come from groups sporting some emotionalized concept of history. Under the proper economic conditions these threats will rise again with added pressure utilizing the new means of mass communication. Without a populace trained in the cold light of reason our democracy will be at the mercy of any smooth talker.

The American school builds, not only for today, but for the future as well. And for this reason more than any other it is imperative that the school build the technique of critical social thinking in its pupils.

Our form of government must continue to evolve as it has in the past. It must change to meet new conditions. The tempo of social change seems to have been so speeded up there is every indication that the governmental forms must be even more fluid than they have been in the past.

The lesson of history shows that governmental forms that crystalized at any particular *status quo*, and that could not keep step with the social forces within, eventually were broken—and broken violently. Fascism and communism present their greatest threats when a condition such as this is reached.

Nothing will do more to crystallize our form of government than a blind worship of things as they are, a principle inherent in emotionalized indoctrination. If the school would emotionalize and indoctrinate in preparation for social change, who could say with any degree of certainty what conditions our now young adults will meet twenty, thirty, or forty years in the future? It is impossible to indoctrinate even the great principles of democracy with any assurance that they will not need modification under new conditions twenty or thirty years hence. Such was the case with the first amendment in our famous Bill of Rights. Can we say positively that free speech may not be as dangerous to the social good in fifty years as the firearms of gangsters are today?

No! Indoctrination today can only result in giving unthinking support some time in the future to vested interests standing athwart the road of social progress in America, contributing perhaps to the ultimate collapse of our government through crystallization.

There is only one solution in the training of our youth for America's future. Develop the power of critical social reason unaffected by pressure groups and emotional appeals. This power in our citizenry will enable democracy to function today as it was intended, and to evolve in the future by meeting the problems of tomorrow with rational solutions fitted to the new conditions.

The Motion Picture Study Period

ROBERT B. NIXON

Radnor High School, Wayne, Pennsylvania

Each month there will appear in this section, synopses of films that may be used in the social studies classroom. The films selected are those that can be obtained free, or by simply paying transportation charges. They will include topics in the fields of industry, agriculture, transportation and business. The publishers and the author give permission to teachers to mimeograph or to use these synopses and any other material found in this section in any way as an aid to teaching. All films listed are silent films.

METHOD OF USING FILMS

1. Films may be used for motivation at the beginning of a unit, or for supplementary material during the study of a unit, or at the end of a unit as visual review.

2. The day the films are to be used, read the synopsis (film story) to the class. Each pupil should follow the teacher on a mimeographed sheet if possible. A pupil who is a good reader may read the synopsis if desired.

3. After reading the synopsis ask the pupils if there are any questions upon the material just read. This will give the pupils an opportunity to have particular words or phrases explained and will aid in understanding the film when shown.

4. Show the film when the discussion of questions has been finished. The picture should be shown in *silence*. A motion picture period is a *study period*. Study is most effective when done in silence. If teachers allow questions to be asked during a film, the machine should be stopped so that attention can be focused upon the questions.

During the showing of a film the teacher does not indulge in small gossip with visitors in the back of the room. Nor does the teacher attempt to supplement the picture with witty or pseudo witty comments upon the film.

The efficient teacher will make sure the film is threaded in the machine, machine in working order, screen in position and shades drawn at the *beginning* of the Motion Picture Study Period. The rule, which must be followed if complete absorption is to be had in the film, is *no distractions*.

5. After showing the film, the students ask questions which have arisen during the presentation of the picture. There should be no rambling in the discussion. There may be references to previous films, particularly where comparisons of processes of manufacture, etc., are involved.

6. Test the pupils after the discussion is ended. Do not fail to follow up each picture with some sort of test. This will prevent the Motion Picture Study Period from degenerating into one of "entertainment." It will convince the lazy pupil that motion pictures are a means of education.

7. Tests or papers may be marked by pupils or teachers. Make sure papers are always marked and returned to the pupils.

8. In final examinations and periodic tests be sure to include questions upon films as well as questions upon text and references. Do not test solely upon films, or pupils will soon learn you consider the films more important than the text and will study accordingly. The text needs the motion picture to supplement it, and the motion picture needs the text and references for foundation material.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED AND SUGGESTIONS FOR BOOKING FILMS

1. A "*free*" film is a picture for which no rental is charged. The borrower is merely required to pay transportation of the film each way. A few companies pay transportation.

2. All films listed in these articles are on *non-inflammable* (slow burning) stock and therefore can be used in classrooms without a motion picture booth.

3. The *title* of a film means its name. Films should be ordered by both title and number.

4. *Source* is the place to write for permission to borrow film. Films should be ordered at the beginning of a semester if you desire a complete film schedule. Allow the source a choice of dates, and upon receipt of your bookings change your course of study to fit your film schedule. The well planned course will permit change of units to suit film schedule. Never show a film on a particular unit several weeks after studying the unit. It is better not to show films out of place.

5. *Sponsor* means the company or persons paying for the production of the films. Some sponsors are also the sources of films. Sponsors will always furnish teachers with complete lists of sources nearest them.

6. *Topic*: The unit with which to use a particular film.

7. *Size*: The narrow width motion picture film is 16 mm. (millimeters) in width, the wide, standard size, motion picture film is 35 mm. in width. Be sure to specify the size film your machine takes.

8. *Reels*: A reel is a spool upon which motion picture film is wound for showing.

9. *Length*: A reel of 16 mm. film contains 400 feet of film. A reel of 35 mm. film contains 1000 feet of film. There is no difference in number of pictures on a 16 mm. or 35 mm. reel. It is only a difference in size of picture on the film.

10. *Running Time*: The number of minutes it takes to show a picture. This is given to assist the teacher in planning a class period.

11. *Number*: To make for quick handling of films in distributors' offices films are sometimes numbered. If you are ordering a film with a number make sure to specify size of film desired and also give the number.

12. Never forget to give the dates you desire to use films when ordering. Return films promptly.

THE STORY OF IRON

Title: The Story of Iron.

Source: The United States Bureau of Mines, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Sponsor: The Bethlehem Steel Corporation; Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company; and Pickands, Mather and Company.

Topic: Iron and Steel, Minerals.

Size: 16 mm. and 35 mm.

Reels: 5, length 2000 feet (16 mm.), 5000 feet (35 mm.).

Running time: One hour fifteen minutes.

Number: 132.

Iron is an ideal metal. It is strong, easily adapted to many uses, and is abundant, permitting the consumption of 130,000,000 tons per year in the entire world. The United States produces one half of this amount. The exact figures are United States 45%, France 21%, Great Britain 8%, Germany 4%, Luxembourg 4%, Sweden 5%, and all others 13%.

Iron was first discovered in the eastern part of the United States. The open pit method of mining was practiced in New York State. The early furnaces were great piles of stone into which the mixture of limestone, charcoal and iron ore was placed, the molten iron being drawn off at the bottom. A Chippewa Indian discovered the iron deposits of Indiana. The deposits extend into Michigan south and west of Lake Superior. These deposits are called an iron range. Birmingham, Alabama, is another iron center. The United States averages 61 million tons of ore per year, Lake Superior yielding 85%; Birmingham, Alabama 10%; and New York and Pennsylvania 2%.

Prospectors looking for iron deposits sink test pits into the soil and under the glacial drift (covering of the earth caused by the glaciers of ages ago). A diamond drill is used when solid rock is reached.

There are various types of iron mining:

1. The open pit method of mining. Here one sees weathered formations of layers of earth, after the top soil has been stripped from the surface. The shovels used weigh 325 tons, the dipper takes up at one scoop eight cubic yards. It takes planning for this type of mining for shovels and trains must be placed so the material can be obtained with no loss or trouble. The overburden is carried to the dumps. The approaches are inclined banks. The earth is stripped from the soil and the ore mined in layers called benches. Sometimes the benches have to be drilled to loosen the ore. Some of the mines have electrical control systems for cars transporting the ore. This puts men out of work. A worked-out open pit mine is usually turned into a lake.

2. The shaft method consists of digging a tunnel or shaft into the earth, then back into the ore. The ore is pushed back into chutes which take it to the top of the mine.

3. Top-slicing method of mining means the timbering of "rooms" dug in the ore. When the ore is finally dug out the timbers are dynamited to allow the earth to subside naturally into the hole. There are two levels in such a mine: the working level and the sublevel. The entry shafts are 100 feet apart at the mining level. The ore must be drilled and dynamited after the walls of the room are timbered. The blast brings down the ore, it is trimmed, mucked or carried by scraper, operated by an electric "tugger," to the waiting car, and is then "slushed" up to the car. The cars are moved or trammed by hand. The rooms after blasting are boarded only on one side. This is in order that the waste and ore will not mix. The ore is not carried from the working level direct to the shaft, but goes to the sublevel where it is carried to the surface. Scrapers increase the output of ore per man.

4. The room and pillar method means a large room supported by pillars of the ore itself. Of course the ore must be of sufficient strength to support the weight above. The magnetite mines of New York use this method. Very large rooms are possible.

5. The open-stope method, where the ground is exceptionally strong, allows for enormous rooms. Superior ore is stock piled until needed or the Great Lakes are open for navigation. In the winter the lakes freeze, preventing shipments. Some ore is of such quality that it can be crushed and washed of its excess silica to be available immediately. A revolving screen sizes it and the smaller pieces are picked by hand while the rest is screened to be sent to the washer. The rejected material is principally stones. In washing, the ore sinks and the paddle-like arrangement in the machine washes the lighter sand onto the paddles, which carry it off. Ore is sampled at every knot in the rope you will see. Lake Superior ores go by way of the Soo Canal and then to refining

centers such as Pittsburgh, or Youngstown by rail. The docks for shipment are at Duluth.

At the blast furnaces the ore is dumped into the furnace by means of skips. The blast is obtained from four furnaces or stoves. It is preheated by the hot gases escaping from the furnace. The iron passes to the bottom of the furnace. Fusion gradually occurs until the fusion zone is reached at the bottom. (Fusion means melting.)

An oxygen blow pipe taps the furnace. The slag pours out of one hole and the iron through another. Iron was formerly run into sand pits. The channels through which it flowed to the molds forming pigs were called sows. Now pig iron is poured or molded by machinery. Note the size of the man compared to the machines. The sparks in the air are minute particles of graphite. Pigs are loaded into railroad cars and ready for shipment to all parts of the world.

Pig iron is used for wrought iron and steel making. Iron is soft and ductile (can be drawn into wire), hard and strong, tough, resists shocks and abrasion (scratching). It can be produced at low cost. It is the ideal metal for a modern age.

TEST

THE STORY OF IRON

1. The United States produces about of the iron of the world.
2. The two great iron regions of the United States are and
3. The types of iron mining are 1
2 3 4
5
4. A worked-out open pit mine generally becomes a
5. Iron was first discovered in the United States in the
6. Some ore is so perfect it requires but to make it ready for use.
7. In washing iron the sinks and the is carried off by paddles.
8. An iron furnace is called a
9. The blast is preheated Fusion takes place near the
10. The waste material from an iron furnace is called
11. Ingots of iron are better known as

THE STORY OF STEEL

Title: The Story of Steel.

Source: United States Bureau of Mines, Pittsburgh, Pa. United States Steel Corporation, 71 Broadway, New York, N.Y.

Topic: Steel and Iron, Minerals.

Sponsor: United States Steel Corp.

Sizes: 16 mm. 35 mm.

Reels: 2, length 800 ft. (16 mm.), 2000 ft. (35 mm.).

Running time: 30 minutes.

Number: Bureau of Mines 143, Y.M.C.A. 1114 1656, A.M.N.H. 181.

Modern achievement would not be possible if it were not for steel. If this were an age in which wood were needed most, steel would not be required. The magnitude of our colossal structures requires steel of the finest quality. Building, transportation, electrical equipment all need steel. Enormous capital is required to manufacture steel. Incidentally steel yields high profits and thus good wages are paid to the workers. Water and rail transportation systems connect the iron ore mines with the manufacturing centers. Ore may lie in various positions in the earth. This determines the methods of mining. If below the surface, huge ventilating equipment must be used in order to make conditions livable beneath the surface.

The galleries run out from the main shaft to the iron deposits at 500-1000-1500 feet.

Miners' homes, while looking very nice, are all alike and monotonous. They were built by companies, which sell them to their employees on terms.

Sanitation and first aid in a steel mill is of vital importance. Through proper instruction in Safety First at the Gary, Indiana plant the accidents were reduced 85%. Gary has excellent schools, parks and hospitals. It is a planned city.

Blast furnaces are charged with coke, limestone and layers of ore. This combination is subjected to intense heat. The limestone acts as a flux, the coke burns, furnishing heat, the surplus gases from some being carried to other parts of the plant and it is used over again. The hot gases from the blast furnaces are drawn off, air added and used for generating power by steam or to develop electrical power. For each ton of steel it almost takes two tons of ore, one ton of coke and two tons of limestone, plus five tons of air.

The temperature ranges from 450-2750 degrees Fahrenheit. In a blast furnace at 500, 90% of the oxygen is removed, at 550 the ore becomes spongy. At 770 the spongy iron takes the oxygen from the coke. At 1410 little carbon is present. At 2370, the iron begins to melt in drops; the drops trickle down. The slag is at the top. A man opens the cinder notch and the slag is drawn off. The iron notch is plugged with clay. When removed the iron pours forth. Huge ladles carry the ore to that part of the plant where the real steel is made. There are three ways of making steel: 1. Bessemer Process, 2. Open Hearth, 3. Electric Furnace.

In the Bessemer process the iron is charged into a converter. Carbon and other impurities are burned out by a blast of air forced through the molten metal. Then are added carbon, manganese and proper proportions of silica to get the right kind of steel.

The open hearth furnace shown in the picture is capable of handling 200 tons. This furnace can be tilted. The furnace is heated by hot gases and air. The iron is worked over until it is properly proportioned and becomes steel. When the steel has been found ready the furnace is tilted and from it pours the steel.

The electric furnace process is used in making high grade alloy steels. (An alloy is another metal melted with the steel.)

After ingots of steel are poured they must be soaked to equalize the temperature for rolling. Steel has thousands of uses in all parts of the world.

TEST

THE STORY OF STEEL

1. The three methods of making steel are
1. 2. 3.
2. The most important item of steel manufacture is
3. The vessel used in the Bessemer process is called a
4. In the open hearth method when the steel is found ready the furnace is and the molten metal pours forth.
5. Electric furnaces are used in making steel.
6. To insure few accidents in a steel mill men are given lessons in
7. Blast furnaces are charged with 1.
2. 3.
8. Waste material from furnaces is

The Next Step in Student Government

NELLIE MARIE QUINN

Principal, Parker Senior High School, Chicago, Illinois

The next step in student government is for leaders of the student bodies of the United States to come to a common understanding of what the United States really is. At the present time may be found as many interpretations of what our nation's culture signifies as there are schools, churches, and universities. We have been so busy growing that we have never concentrated our efforts in producing a road map that specifically guides human beings in the direction of responsible citizenship.

What I propose to present is something every school can use, irrespective of its size or locality—this road map idea that interprets what the public schools of the United States are trying to do in order to direct and transform youthful energy into useful channels.

In the great struggle to organize and educate on a democratic basis all the peoples of the world who have come to live within our boundaries with their various languages, traditions, and religions the United States stands alone. We have gone on record as having at least four important cultural objectives:

1. The promotion of creative living. By creative living I mean the kind that helps every boy and girl find work to do in life that one loves and finds sustaining.
2. The promotion of self-reliance and self-respect. The people of the United States believe that there is work for everyone who is

willing to qualify. Through the coöperation of labor and capital we shall provide work for every citizen of merit so that he may raise a family and live decently under a majority rule of the people.

3. We believe in reasonable competition, that is, a control of our natural resources in solving the problem of production, distribution, and consumption of produce in the conservation of humanity as opposed to its exploitation.
4. The people of the United States respect all human beings irrespective of race, color or creed.

If all the students of our country knew of the blood our forebears spilled in the incorporation of these ideals in the life stream of our people we would so love our country that we could right its wrongs in a brief span of time and make it a land of real peace and prosperity.

In Parker High School's "Student Participation in School Control Organization" we have attempted to experience these ideals in our school life. This organization consists of 3500 high school students—the entire school population grouped coöperatively in an organization modeled after our federal, state, and local units. We believe that students habituated to think in terms of problems and of the struggle to remedy them before actually being in the grip of the

forces which created the problems have an equipment for life that is bound to insure the preservation of our democracy.

Within our school day, through assembly programs, clubs, movies, excursions, forums, and visitations to neighboring high schools we seriously inspect and conservatively estimate what life could be like if we as a nation were to achieve real economic co-operation. In the past year we have tried to understand such important national, state, and local issues as:

1. The cause and prevention of disease.
2. Unemployment.
3. Employment and adequate wage scales.
4. Causes of industrial strife.
5. Social security through insurance.
6. Preventable accidents.
7. Vocations and how they are made.
8. The significance of deferred pleasures through achievement in social service.
9. What education has done to cut the cost of crime.
10. The national housing program.

These issues in a vitalized setting create situations which furnish the motive power for lifting the student out of himself making him glad to take part in the reconstruction of social forces for a better

world in which to live. Association with important people promotes the importance of the student and gives him opportunity for crusading and hero-worshiping. Inter-high school visitations are emphasized so that a variety of student talents may be nurtured for a diversity of life functions.

Students of the Parker High School, after thorough discussion in home rooms and assembly, listed the objectives of student government as follows:

1. To educate the students in civic responsibilities.
2. To offer the students experiences in leadership.
3. To give the students opportunities to take part in the administration of school affairs which concern the student body.
4. To set the correct proportion for social and scholastic phases of school life.
5. To promote among the students a coöperative spirit and a feeling that they are responsible for the school as a whole.

If high schools throughout the United States were to adopt some essential pattern for experiencing students in democratic living as has been described and carried out in the Parker High School in Chicago, America would soon weed out unfit leaders and substitute worthy experienced social engineers.

Living with Geography

HAROLD GLUCK

Walton High School, Bronx, New York

The increasing importance given to economic geography in this country necessitates a thorough re-examination of the material in the various courses of study as well as further experimentation in methods of teaching. In Europe, geography has an important place in the school curriculum. In practically all of the European schools it is regarded as an essential part of a pupil's program, covering his entire school life.¹

Unfortunately, in this country, economic geography has in many cases been a step-child of the curriculum. In some cases it has been shifted from the commercial departments to the social studies departments. In some schools, the less intelligent children in general have been given economic geography. And in other schools, teachers who were untrained in the field were

given the subject to teach in order "to fill in their program." Within the department the best teachers have been rarely assigned this subject.²

The new regulation of the Board of Education of the City of New York in granting a license to teach economics and economic geography is a step in the right direction.³ One can hope to accomplish little in the teaching of economic geography until teachers are specifically trained to teach that definite type of subject matter. The field is very broad and we must have competent teachers.⁴

Economic geography has resulted largely from the cross-breeding of both economics and geography, al-

¹ Rose B. Clark, "Geography in the Schools of Europe." Published in Isaiah Bowman, *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, American Historical Association, Part V (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), p. 236.

² Louis D'Ambrosio, "Concerning Economic Geography," *High Points* (October, 1935), pp. 65-66.

³ See *Regulations of the Board of Education* concerning applications for licenses to teach in the high schools, New York, 1937.

⁴ De Forest Stull, "Geography in the Social Studies, Program," *Sixth Yearbook* of The National Council for the Social Studies, p. 69.

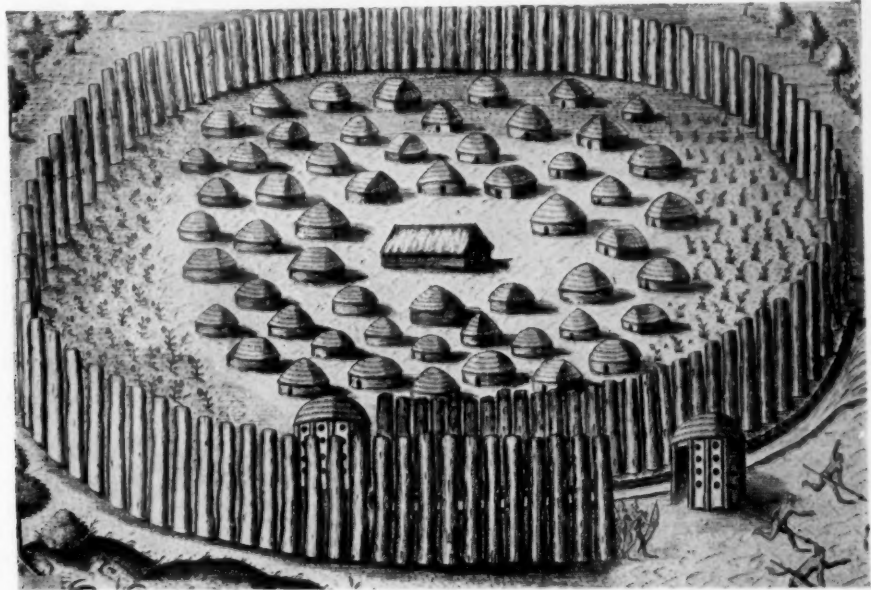
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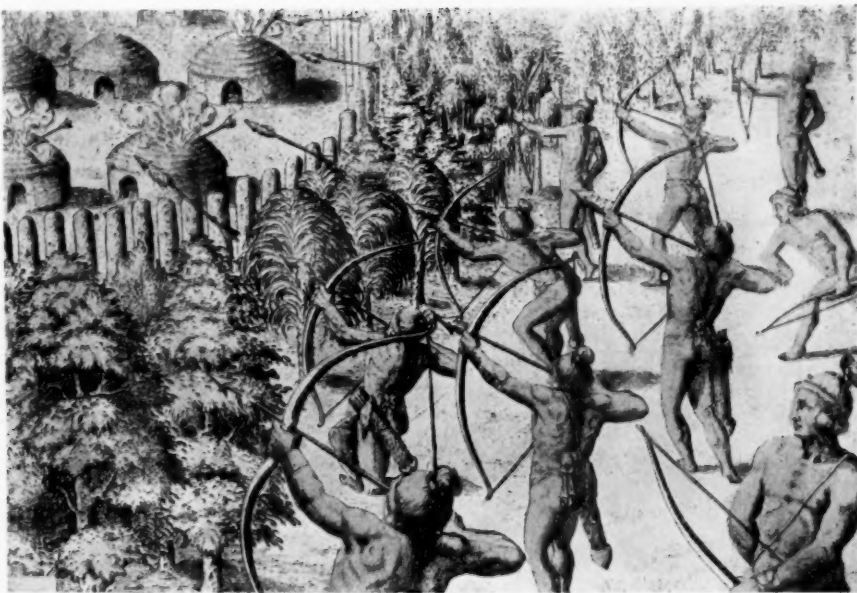
THE SOCIAL STUDIES

NOVEMBER, 1938

THE AMERICAN INDIANS AT THE TIME OF THE FIRST SETTLEMENTS



An Indian village, showing the arrangement of the houses and the protecting stockade surrounding them. Note the guard houses at the entrance to the village.



An attack upon an Indian village. Firebrands attached to arrows are being shot into the village in an attempt to set the houses on fire. The early settlers found that while the Indians were often friendly, fighting was a part of Indian life.

THE AMERICAN INDIANS



Europeans had queer ideas of the animals that inhabited America at the time of the first settlements. The above illustration is from an old Dutch print and is an attempt to show some of the animals and birds that were supposed to have lived in America at the time the Indians roamed all over the country.



In order to navigate the rivers and creeks, the Indians constructed boats or dug-outs. In the picture, Indians are working on a dug-out, using fire to burn out the log. The dug-out was the parent of modern boats. It has been found in association with Stone Age remains in Europe.

THE AMERICAN INDIANS

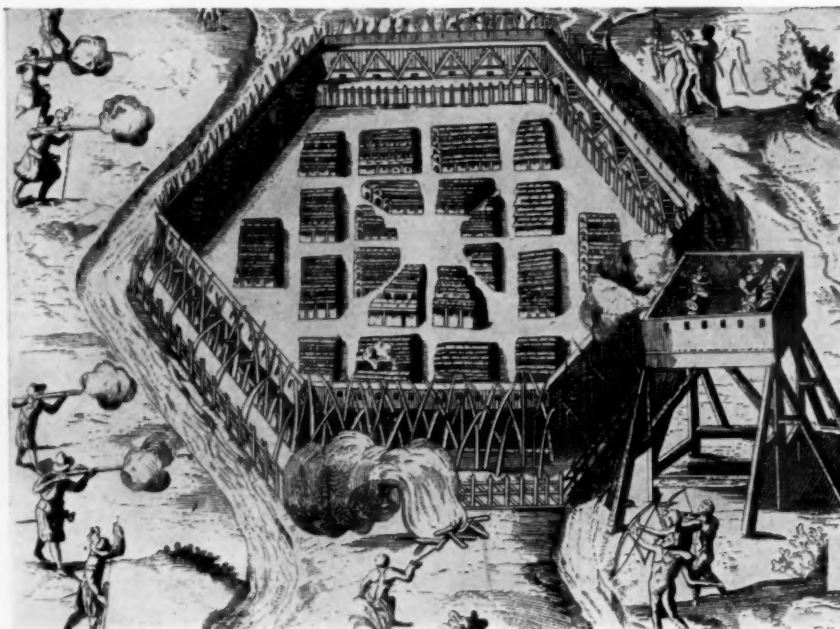


The first part of the map of Virginia from Captain John Smith's *Generall Historie of Virginia, New England and the Summer Isles*. The map, showing the coast from Cape Henry to Albermarle Sound, occupies only a small part of the plate, the remainder depicting some of his exploits. His writings are full of accounts of his great deeds, many of which seem impossible. From left to right across the top are shown: (1) John Smith taken prisoner by the Indians and bound to a tree to be put to death by arrows; (2) A view of an Indian idol, a conjurer and a priest. The Indians are holding a conjuration over Smith. (3) John Smith taking prisoner the king of Pamaunke, whom he depicts as a giant. At the lower left,

John Smith is taken prisoner by the Indians, but after fighting them he frees himself and takes their king prisoner. At the lower right is an illustration of John Smith's story of his capture by Powhatan and his rescue from death by Pocahontas. While in many places the writings of John Smith are exaggerated, his books are of much historical and geographical value. He was sent to the New World in 1606 by the London Company. Dissensions broke out on the high seas before the destination was reached and he was condemned to be hanged. However, he escaped this fate and became one of the most influential men in the colony. He kept up the spirits of the first settlers and made friends with the Indians.

THE AMERICAN INDIANS

Champlain, the French explorer, joined his Indian allies, the Algonquins, in an attack against an Iroquois village. Champlain's action embittered the Iroquois against the French. Note the different methods of warfare, including the use of firearms and bows and arrows, as well as the attempt to set fire to the village. The French have constructed a scaffold from which they can shoot into the village. Champlain wrote about his discoveries. This valuable record of his achievements proves that he also was a talented artist. Sketches of Indians, their dwellings, warfare and customs illustrate his work which was published.



This picture is copied from the noted painting by Benjamin West, "Penn's Treaty with the Indians," made 100 years after Penn's dealings with the Indians. The treaty was made with the Indians at Shackamaxon (Kensington), now within the city of Philadelphia, under a great elm tree on the banks of the Delaware River probably

in November, 1682. Authorities differ as to the object of the treaty. Some maintain that its purpose was the purchase of lands; others maintain that it was intended to establish friendship between Penn and the Indians. The houses shown in the background were built by Swedish settlers.

though it has never seriously aspired to the important rank of either of its parents.⁵ It has presented to the teacher a rather complicated problem in methods. This is due to the fact that part of its methods are those of the social sciences and part are those of the natural studies.⁶

With this background in mind, it was decided to conduct an experiment in the teaching of economic geography. This experiment may be called "The Walton Economic Geography Experiment, Unit I." Basically it consisted in the application of a social studies laboratory method to the teaching of economic geography.

In regard to the materials with which to work, we were fortunate in having a relatively new school building with a room for economic geography. This room was equipped with chairs and tables so that it could be used as an ordinary recitation room, a laboratory, or a combination of both. There was a motion picture screen that could be lowered from the ceiling and special black shades on the windows, so that the room might be darkened for the projection of pictures. Films were supplied by the Board of Education free of charge and the social studies department of the school provided a 16 mm. projection machine. Bookcases reaching to the ceiling were built into the room to house books and display materials. There was plenty of room for students to display their own work if they so desired. Everything was done to create an ideal social studies laboratory.⁷

For the first two weeks of the term, the class was run on the ordinary classroom recitation basis. Due to program changes and administrative details, it was felt best to do this. Each student was given one chief textbook and one supplementary reference textbook. The students were shown how to use the text and how to answer the different types of questions contained in it. We discussed modern developments that had taken place since the textbook had been printed. How could we keep abreast of these developments? After a debate and a long interesting discussion upon the uses of a daily newspaper, the class decided to adopt—at least for a trial period—the daily use of a newspaper. Selected articles pertaining to economic geography were studied at home and discussed in class. It was necessary to show the students how to use the newspaper.

At the end of the two week period the fatal question was put to the class. Were they willing to try a new method of learning, one which would be entirely different than anything they had previously experi-

enced and which would involve a different relationship between student and teacher? The pupils asked for further information as they were very curious and slightly incredulous. Briefly I explained to them the main points of the plan. Ordinary class recitations were to be abolished. Each student would be given a progress sheet upon which would be kept a record of his work. We would continue to use the textbook, and assigned lessons would be given in it. The same would be done with the daily newspaper. A fairly complete economic geography library would be placed at the disposal of the class during the class period. There would be magazines, booklets, pamphlets, books, reference books, and selected special articles in this library. The student would read in class this material, which was correlated to the course of study. As each unit was finished, the student would write a report which would be submitted to the teacher. He would then discuss this report with the individual student. Once a week we would show films bearing on the subject studied. There would also be special work for students who desired to learn more than the allotted units.

The class voted to adopt this plan. Then, fortunately, one of the students asked the question I was hoping would be asked: "How will you check up on our work?" This required careful explanation. At given intervals standardized tests would be given upon the material covered by the text. From time to time the notebooks would be examined and each student was to be ready at any time to come to my desk and discuss the day's assigned lesson with me. The same plan was to be followed with the newspaper. Class discussion would follow the showing of each film, and tests would be given upon the films. The mark given for each unit of reading work would be based upon the written report plus oral discussion with the teacher. All special work would be marked and also discussed with the individual student. Upon each student's progress sheet would be a statement of every unit of work completed with a mark assigned to each unit. The students would either pass or fail themselves.

Elsewhere I have described the social studies library that was put into use.⁸ What is of interest here, is the material relating to economic geography that was used by the students. Among the magazines were files of the *National Geographic Magazine*, *Journal of Geography*, *Asia*, *Bulletin of the Pan American Union*, *Geographical Magazine*, *Geographical Review*, *Consumer's Guide*, *Geographic News Bulletins*, *Political Science Quarterly*, *Current History*, *Nation*, *New Republic*, and the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. We had

⁵ X.Y.Z., "The New Economic Geography," *High Points* (June, 1934), p. 63.

⁶ Edgar B. Wesley, *Teaching the Social Studies*. (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937), p. 46.

⁷ M. J. Stormzand and R. H. Lewis, *New Methods in the Social Studies*. (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1935), p. 111.

⁸ Harold Gluck, "A Social Studies Library," *Social Education*, II (February, 1938), 94-98.

available files of about fifty-five magazines and periodicals relating to economic geography and to economics. In addition, from time to time, other periodicals were "sampled" for articles relating to our field. To illustrate, in the *Saturday Evening Post*, December 8, 1937, was an article entitled, "The Dust Bowl Can Be Saved," by Ben Hibbs; in *Life*, December 13, 1937, was an article entitled, "Black Haiti: Where Old Africa and the New World Meet"; in *French Commerce*, September-October, 1937, was a discussion concerning "Exportation of Apples and Pears from the United States"; in the *Dominican Republic*, December, 1937, was an article entitled, "Tourists Find New Charm in the Dominican Republic"; and in *Scribner's*, April, 1936, was an article entitled, "Africa—The Coming Continent" by T. L. Stoddard.

We had hundreds of booklets and pamphlets available, among which were *Rayon and Synthetic Yarns* (Brooklyn Museum, Brooklyn, N.Y.); *You and Machines* by William F. Ogburn. (University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill.); *Columbia Basin Project* (Department of the Interior. Bureau of Reclamation. Washington, D.C.); *Our Imports and Who Uses Them* (National Foreign Trade Council, India House, Hanover Square, New York, N.Y.); *The Tennessee Valley Looks to the Future*, by Walter E. Myer. (National Education Association, Washington, D.C.); *The Mahogany Book* (Mahogany Association, Inc., 75 East Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.); *The Picture Story of Steel* (American Iron and Steel Institute. 350 Fifth Avenue, New York, N.Y.); *Report of the National Resources Board* (United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.); *The Story of the Tire* (Goodyear Rubber Co., Akron, Ohio); *The Story of the Banana* (United Fruit Co., Boston, Mass.); *Food Sources* (The Great Atlantic and Pacific Tea Company, New York, N.Y.); *Soil and Water Conservation in the Northern Great Plains* (United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.); *Rich Man Poor Man* (Harper and Brothers, New York, N.Y.); *From the Rouge to the Road* (Ford Motor Company, Dearborn, Mich.); *Where Trade Tides Converge* (Chicago Board of Trade, Chicago, Ill.); *Yearbook of Swift and Company* (Swift and Company, Chicago, Ill.); *National Ideals and International Idols*, by Wallace B. Donham. (Reprinted from *Harvard Business Review*, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.); *Summarized Data of Copper Production* (United States Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C.); *The Story of Rayon* (The Viscose Company, 171 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y.); *Soil Defense in the Piedmont* (United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.); *The Romance of Leather* (Tanners' Council of America, 100 Gold Street, New York, N.Y.); *Coal* (Norfolk and Western Railroad Company, Roanoke,

Virginia); *Seeing the Latin Republics of North America* (The Pan American Union. Washington, D.C.); *The Story of Coffee* (Bureau of Coffee Information, 230 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y.).

Among hundreds of books were *Mexico* by Stuart Chase; *Man the Miracle Maker* by Hendrik Van Loon; *Conservation of Our Natural Resources* by C. R. Van Hise and Louis Havemeyer; *Modern Wonder Workers* by Waldemar Kaempffert; *Power in Industry* by Edward S. Cowdrick; *The Travels of Marco Polo*; *New Frontiers* by Henry A. Wallace; *The Crusades* by Harold Lamb; *Raw Materials of Industrialism* by Hugh B. Killough and Lucy W. Killough; *A History of Commerce and Industry* by Chessman A. Herrick; *Yearbook of Agriculture*; *The Story of the Western Railroads* by Robert Edgar Riegel; *Commerce and Industry* by J. Russell Smith; *America Self Contained* by Samuel Crowther; *Made in the United States* by Ryllis Alexander Goslin (ed.); *Co-operatives* by Ryllis Alexander Goslin; *English Society in the Eighteenth Century* by Jay Barrett Botsford; *Carnack the Life Bringer* by Oliver Marble Gale; *Men and Machines* by Stuart Chase; *Farm Products in Industry* by George M. Rommel; and *A Brief Description of New York* by Daniel Denton.

Among the films shown were those treating Central America, Brazil, rubber, wheat, range sheep, bananas, coffee, transportation on the great lakes, coal, men's clothing industry, lumbering in the Pacific Southwest, iron ore to pig iron, tin, Denmark, Argentina, gasoline, and canning. One can find many excellent sources of motion picture films and many fruitful ideas in Miss Grace Hotchkiss' excellent study.⁹

With such an abundance of material much was accomplished. We must always remember that it is the teacher who neglects to provide his class with frequent opportunities to employ their reason who finds his pupils listless and unresponsive.¹⁰ Any method of teaching which aims to develop thinking on the part of boys and girls cannot be dependent upon a single text as its only material of instruction.¹¹ If students are to think, they must have material to think about—and a teacher who is willing and capable of making students think.

In preparing any experiment with human beings and carrying it through to completion, one cannot foresee the unexpected developments that may take place, nor the unexpected results that may occur. Our experiment was purely and simply one in economic geography. Yet, one of the unanticipated results that

⁹ Grace Hotchkiss, "The Use of the Motion Picture as a Technique of Instruction," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* (January, 1937), pp. 6-13.

¹⁰ Brendan Byrne, "The Use of the Thought Question in Economic Geography," *High Points* (April, 1933), p. 40.

¹¹ "The Social Studies Curriculum," *Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, N.E.A.*, 1936, pp. 286-287.

we obtained was character development. We might accept Drake's definition of character as "the sum of a man's tendencies to conduct."¹² Much has been written about character development by people who have never handled children. A large part of this is worthless.

I can definitely state that I actually watched my pupils develop and change. They became conscious of their ability to do things; conscious that they were learning what was new to them; conscious that they were developing new skills and techniques; and I do not think it redundant to say that they became conscious that they were conscious. From such consciousness doth the soul grow.

Whenever a student finished the assigned unit, we would talk it over quietly at my desk. It was necessary to speak in a low tone so as not to disturb the other students who were busy reading at their seats. I soon knew all my students individually, and what is just as important, they knew their teacher. This intimate knowledge was a most important factor in the success of the experiment. Unless I knew each student thoroughly, I would never be able to assign graded work to each, nor build up an individual study program for each. Three difficult articles which were read by three of my most advanced students will clearly illustrate this point. One article was "Origins of the Great Wall of China—a Frontier Concept in Theory and Practice," in *The Geographical Review*, October, 1937; the second, "Man Versus Floods," in *Political Science Quarterly*, September, 1937; and the third, "The Leipzig Trade Fairs," in *The Journal of Geography*, September, 1937.

Map work has been the haunting specter of many a geography teacher. Many educational authorities regard map work by the students as an essential part—if not the most essential part—of geography work. One authority takes the view that maps embody some of the most distinctive measurements of geography.¹³ Another takes the view that not only must we know a place on the map, but practically make it part of our experience. A third comes straight to the point and insists that the teaching of maps is an absolutely basic and essential obligation of geography instruction. We may agree with all this. But sad experience and much wasted effort in the past has taught us that because teachers may agree upon sound facts that a certain skill or body of knowledge is necessary for students to acquire, does not necessarily mean that the students will want to acquire it.

The reading units lead naturally and directly to map work. When a student finished an assigned

unit and we discussed it together, I would say, "Close your eyes and picture what you have just told me." If the student could do this, I would next say, "Could you make an actual picture of what you have just seen in your mind, and described to me?" If the student were unable to make this mental picture, I would instead say, "Something must be wrong. What can we do so that you can see this picture in your mind?" In either case we lead up to map work. At first, the maps were crude and inaccurate. This was to be expected. It was necessary to acquire new skills and techniques, in fact, a new method of thinking and seeing things. And during the term the students developed into fairly good map makers.

Since we had sufficient display space in the room it was only natural to display their work. This was a powerful stimulus to the students. Nothing succeeds like success! It also gave the students the feeling that it was "their room."

Within the last few years teachers have experimented with different approaches in economic geography, trying the commodity approach, the regional approach and the problem approach.¹⁴ Teachers may argue forever over the question, "Which approach is the best?" The use of the laboratory method shows that all approaches are valuable and that it is worthwhile to use not one approach, but all approaches in teaching the subject.

There is one line of experimentation in the teaching of economic geography which presents a rather unexplored field of activity—full of interesting possibilities. I refer to the correlation of economic geography with the foreign languages.¹⁵ If some of our students speak a foreign language in their home environment, or because, as in the majority of cases, they are studying the language in school, why not link up this language knowledge and background to economic geography? This may be done in two ways, either by using articles relating to economic geography in foreign language newspapers or by using geography books published in the foreign language as supplementary reading material. Our special library now has geography books in Spanish and Italian, and we also have a subscription to the *Bulletin of the Pan American Union* in Spanish and to the *Dominican Republic*, which has a Spanish section. For advanced students we have economic books in French and German.

The use of *Consumers Guide* raises a vital problem in consumer education. The logical end of production is consumption. When we teach by the project method or by the commodity approach, should

¹² Durant Drake, *Problems of Conduct* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1935), p. 96.

¹³ Isaiah Bowman, *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*, p. 42.

¹⁴ Pauline Michel Papke, "Suggestions Concerning a New Syllabus in Economic Geography," *High Points* (February, 1937), p. 6.

¹⁵ Harold Gluck, *The Social Studies and Foreign Languages* (New York: Abco Press, 1937), p. 7.

we carry our teaching to the ultimate goal—the use of the commodity?

Today the majority of educators accept the general idea of a need for consumer education.¹⁶ However, I hesitate before expressing any final opinion upon the matter as to whether or not we should include such material as part of our course in economic geography. Under the laboratory method of teaching we were able to teach successfully something about the subject. But under ordinary circumstances the course is crowded enough without trying to add more to it.

Within recent years there has been an increase of radio programs which can be linked to economic geography. One type has been of especial interest to the students. This is the type in which the commentator, usually a news reporter or foreign correspondent, who has spent years abroad describes either his adventures in a particular portion of the globe or conditions in a particular country. The fact that many of

¹⁶ R. G. Walter, "Consumer Education," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association* (January, 1938), p. 24; "Improving Social Studies Instruction," *Research Bulletin of the National Education Association* (November, 1937), p. 201.

these commentators write articles and books which can be read by the students give an added zest to the programs.

Both teacher and students have learned much through this particular experiment. Much remains as yet to be accomplished. I feel that Professor Elmer W. Ekblaw has well stated our case in the following words:

Though geography in America has not even yet attained the degree of influence and utility that it has achieved in most of the countries of Europe, it is slowly but surely pressing forward to a position where it will be indispensable, both in the cultural and professional aspects of education. The potential role of geography in future cultural, professional, and industrial activities of the world is apparently not fully appreciated by educators themselves, possibly not fully realized even by our teachers of geography; but certain it is, that the time is now at hand when there can no longer be any doubt of its educational value in the school curriculum.¹⁷

¹⁷ Elmer W. Ekblaw, "The Attributes of Place," *Journal of Geography* (September, 1937).

Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs in Our High Schools¹

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All of us are familiar with the classics of Mother Goose and Peter Grimm. It is safe to say that many a man of noble character who is looked upon in his community as a paragon of courage and virtue can ascribe his early guidance to the gentle hands of Mother Goose and at the venturesome feet of Peter Grimm. Of course, you remember the philosophical little Bo-Peep who refused to get the jitters in the face of misfortune, the musical lady of Banbury Cross who scattered good-cheer wherever she went, and the fearless little Jack Horner who equipped with neither fork nor spoon plunged his thumb into the pie and pulled out a plum—a fitting reward for his courage and initiative.

Or take our childhood friends of Peter Grimm's creation—Tom Thumb, the redoubtable midget, who though handicapped by size used his sturdy intelligence to solve successfully his difficulties, Faithful John who though misunderstood and misjudged did not swerve from his arduous duty as guardian of an

impetuous young Prince, and Dumpling, the wood-cutter's son, whose reward for an act of kindness to an old man was the Golden Goose.

I wish to recall Peter Grimm's most famous tale—Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs—a story recently imbued with new life by Walt Disney's animated cartoon. Perhaps we can find in it an analogy to our high school student life.

You remember that Snow White led a rather uneventful existence until her stepmother became aware of her beauty. Jealously-conscious of Snow White's possible importance, the designing woman planned to rid the world and herself of the menace. Please note that if the cruel stepmother had not resented the presence of the growing child, there never would have come to pass those adventures with the Seven Dwarfs and finally the discovery by the Prince. Isn't it providential that often stumbling-blocks become stepping-stones to Success and Happiness:

Let us imagine that Snow White is the Student Council in our high school. For months and perhaps for years it has existed and no particular attention

¹ Read at the Eighth Annual Convention of the National Association of Student Officers in New York, June 30, 1938.

has been given to its interests, aims, and growth. The day comes, however, when the members of the Council decide to plan assemblies, to conduct a series of matinee dances, to renovate the campus, or to regulate student clubs and organizations. Lo! The unappreciative step-mother in the guise of some faculty member suggests that the Council is becoming too ambitious, too powerful, and consequently "ought to be put in its proper place."

What happens? Just what happened to Snow White. A friend in the capacity of a sponsor, principal, or superintendent does not snuff out its life; but sympathetically allows it to find the road by experimentation through paths of doubt and confusion to a career of service and satisfaction among interesting fellow-beings where coöperation and tactful leadership point the highway to success.

The analogy does not end here, however. What relationships have the Seven Dwarfs with our high school students? Webster's *Dictionary* says that "A dwarf is a person below average size—stunted." Every high school, I am sure, has its seven dwarfs—groups of young people over whom the Council must exert its influence if it will fulfill its mission.

There is Happy. He is good-natured, fun-loving, happy-go-lucky; but alas, irresponsible! It is, indeed, difficult to make him realize the absolute necessity of reflecting upon the more serious aspects of school life. For instance, rules and regulations are lightly considered and lessons are prepared just well enough to "get by" by this carefree playboy who genuinely liked by everybody falls short of his best. Can the Council reach him and utilize his vivacious and pleasing personality?

Here comes Sneezy. He is the fellow who enjoys being a pest. Small misdemeanors—hiding a classmate's book, getting in everybody's way on the dance-floor, cheering out of unison at pep assemblies and on the athletic field are some of Sneezy's smart tricks. Is he material for the Council to seek out and bring into the fold?

This one is Dopey. He may not be an intellectual star; but possibly his slow-working brain is compensated for by a devotion of the first magnitude to a cause. Perhaps he is destined to fill the role of faithful follower, so vital in all social progress. At any rate, can the Council stretch forth its hand of friendship and encouragement?

Have you met Doc? You will find him in every school from Maine to California, from Minnesota to Texas. Sometimes his devotion to the library precludes a friendly participation in the activities of his fellow-students. He has no time for dramatics, debating, journalism, and athletics. His I.Q. is very satisfactory but we wonder what his S.Q. (Social Quotient) would register. Sometimes he is a know-it-all, too ready to solve the affairs of the League of

Nations or the depression and too prone to overlook the problems of his immediate environment. If there were less expanse and more depth to his ideas, we would feel greater confidence. He has ability. Can the Council show him how to use it for his community?

Over there in the corner is Bashful. He is really a fine fellow, but you have to go ninety per cent of the way if you wish to know him. By nature he is not an easy mixer and so, of course, he feels out of place at social gatherings. The tragedy is that very often Bashful is looking wistfully for help—someone to show him how to break through the ice and to teach him how to strike out in open water. What skill and talent can Bashful contribute to the improvement of his school?

The comfortable-looking bit of humanity over here is Sleepy. Shall we rouse him or let him continue to get along on the minimum of physical and mental effort? The athletic field is too far from the school, the gym floor is not slippery enough for dancing, the chairs in the auditorium are too uncomfortable for attendance at dramatic and forensic events. He does not complain; he merely accepts fancied limitations. What would Sleepy's coöperation mean if the Council could break down his inertia? Who knows?

Ah, in walks Grumpy. Poor old Grumpy! He snorts his disgust at every proposal. He refuses to become a member of the Students' Activities Association because he does not see "what he gets out of it." He will not try out for a part in the play because the play is "lousy" and the coach is "dippy." He shuns the orchestra and band because the leader is too much an old fogey to select "up-to-date peppy swing tunes." So Grumpy devotes much of his valuable time and energy to finding fault with opportunities offered. Can Grumpy be shown that a road on a distant hillside appears very steep; but upon approach it flattens out to easy grades? Will the Council be able to induce Grumpy to participate in school activities instead of criticizing them afar?

Now to return to Snow White. Just how did she intrigue the Dwarfs to become her hosts and friends? By force, by scolding, by promises of fabulous rewards? No. Her method was little acts of kindness (the dusted chair); attempts at friendliness (she learned their names); willingness to work (she made a delicious supper); firmness and tact in necessary reform (she coaxed them out to the water-trough for a preprandial wash). After supper all shared the work of clean-up and then suggested a celebration in which each Dwarf contributed to the entertainment according to his unique musical resources.

Later, when the stepmother again attempted to get rid of Snow White, the Dwarfs acted so unselfishly and prudently that the Prince had no difficulty in finding and claiming his Princess, because

he and the Dwarfs had become friends through their devotion to Snow White.

In like manner, our Student Councils, not by drastic methods, not by stern rules, not by coercion, and high pressure tactics, but by friendliness, firmness, sincerity, and tactful leadership must win the coöperation of all the Happys, Sneezys, Dopeys, Docs, Bashfuls, Sleepys and Grumpys, in our student bodies. After the members of the Council have proved their willingness to be friends and co-workers,

then will come offers of assistance and joyous occasions of celebration. If the Council's existence is again threatened, the loyal Dwarfs will see to it that though some temporary set-backs are encountered, the Council will be put in such a guarded position that when the Prince of Success walks through the neighborhood he will have no difficulty in recognizing the accomplishments of both the leaders and the followers in the student life of our high schools.

The Fallacy of Dichotomies

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Popular thinking, and to some extent scientific thinking as well, have for some time been hampered by the tendency to think in terms of what are known as "dichotomies"—pairs of ideas supposedly more or less opposite or at least distinct. Dichotomous expressions like "body and mind," "physical and mental," "emotional and rational," "social and individual," "freedom and restraint," "free will and determinism," abound. Of course, a certain—perhaps considerable—element of truth may be embodied in such pairing of terms, but there is manifest also a potential menace to clear thinking. People seem generally to assume that because there are words "body" and "mind," and because there are the terms "emotional" and "rational," that, *therefore*, each observable phenomenon must be *either* physical *or* mental, emotional *or* rational. To the important fact that most scientific social thought today is definitely in reaction to dichotomous thinking, too many are quite oblivious. Much human behavior, we have discovered, is not *either* "physical" *or* "mental" but is a composite of *both*. Likewise, thinking which was formerly regarded as necessarily either "emotional" or "rational" we now know may embody both emotional and rational aspects simultaneously. In other words, although there may be merit in setting up dichotomies in order better to see reality, a grave problem arises when we assume that the terms of the dichotomy are realities, *per se*. To be sure, there are emotional and rational aspects of thought and there are physical and mental aspects of a person, but the important reality is the person whose functioning is more of a unit than is suggested by any "either . . . or" terminology.

By way of illustration, let us take a few common dichotomies and examine them in the light of current scientific thought in the fields in which they are studied. Take the body-mind dichotomy, first. The mind—leaving aside what it *is*—exists by virtue

of the basic existence of the brain, mid-brain, spinal column, and innumerable neural sub-systems, which are really "physical," that is, parts of the "body." Now, what gives the body purposive activity? Is it not the functioning of what we know as "mind?" But this is only an elemental observation. Newer borderline sciences between the older physiology and psychology, such as neurology, endocrinology; psychiatry and others, have discovered, and are still discovering, that a mutually interdependent relationship exists between the mental and the physical, and that, therefore, thinking in terms of "mental" and "physical" as distinct entities is confusing and deceptive:

Not only laymen but many scientists are unaware of important recent discoveries in the relation between endocrine glands and personality. It is probable that most of what we call temperament is determined by inner chemistry, and that this is largely determined by the under- and over-activity of various endocrine glands. It has been demonstrated that emotionally unstable persons show unusually great irregularity of chemical metabolism, that deficient thyroid secretion produces sluggish metabolism, fatigue, and under-development, that excess thyroid produces over-activity. Recently some evidence has been found that temper tantrums are related to deficiency of calcium, and some students of the problem think they are getting improvement by injecting parathyroid hormone, which controls the body's calcium metabolism. Endocrinology is still in the stage of experiment, but it probably holds more promise of adjusting human personality in the future than most of us have dreamed.¹

¹ J. K. Folsom, *The Family, Its Sociology and Social Psychiatry* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1934), pp. 505-506.

Similarly, relationships between digestive processes, food habits and mental states have been discovered. Again, complexes like inferiority or superiority and fundamental adjustments like introversion and extroversion, psychiatrists have discovered, are often due to such factors as the presence of physical defects or bodily peculiarities. In these cases, then, the physical-mental ideology is not only of little use, but may actually befog the real fact, namely that there is a *whole* being which, in normal cases, constitutes a living and functioning unity. This totality may be abstractly divided into parts, but only with considerable violation of reality, and even then with so many qualifications that one may with good reason wonder whether the separation is legitimate at all. This is not to be construed as a criticism of specialization in the study of the human being such as physiology, psychology, sociology, anthropology, and so on, but is merely a reminder of the fact so often neglected or entirely omitted, namely, that distinctions for academic study are for academic study only and should be used only if and when they facilitate our understanding. In the hands of the amateur or of the incautious professional they are handicaps to clear thinking, rather than evidences of it.

In the second place there is the "emotional-rational" dichotomy. One would assume from the use of these words that most people are of the opinion that human thought and behavior are always either emotional or rational and that one could classify his or another's behavior into two pigeon holes, one labeled "rational" and the other labeled "emotional." Again, careful observation calls this assumption into question. Students of thought habits, particularly our social psychologists, are employing this dichotomy with much reservation and a few have gone so far as to say that they doubt its utility altogether. What we have, rather, is the abstract phenomenon we call thought process, which is the product of a multiplicity of factors. "Rational" thought is influenced by one's emotions; and probably little "emotional" behavior is entirely devoid of some rationality. In practically all of the thinking (outside of formal professional problem solving) which people are called upon to do, there are both emotional and rational influences at work, varying in degree among different people and among the same persons at different times. Then, also, one must remember that the "newer psychology" is realizing more and more the importance of what is termed the "sub-conscious," which, by the greatest stretch of the imagination could not be classified as either rational or emotional, although it might have some attributes comparable to either.²

This matter of limitations upon the "emotional-

rational" dichotomy may also be approached through an analysis of what might be called "the meaning of meaning" in thought processes:

Words are arbitrary symbols of things, relations, and ideas. . . . However they are learned not by reading dictionaries, but by hearing them used in different tones of voice suggesting approval or disapproval. . . . Consequently due to these associations, they have not merely an *idea meaning* for us but also a flavor, an *emotional coloring*. . . . Our vocabularies . . . thus come to contain many words which originally were merely descriptive terms. And as the value content of the word increases, the idea content becomes less important.³

In other words, even when we are most "rational" we are forced to resort to the use of words and other symbols which have *both* an "idea meaning" and an "emotional coloring." We cannot, it seems, escape this predicament. Are we, then, in the face of all this evidence justified in using the words "emotional" and "rational" as if we could distinguish clearly between them? The facts discovered in the study of the psychology and sociology of language deny the legitimacy of this dichotomy except with very definite limitations familiar only to the specialist.

Turning to another phase of experience we note the dichotomy "social" and "individual." Most persons employ these terms with a glibness which reveals all too well the fact that they have confused what Stuart Chase calls the "name" and the "thing." As foregoing illustrations have shown, dichotomies are hangovers from times when they represented, perhaps, the best scientific thought of that day and are perpetuated partly because we have confused that which we are talking about, as it *is*, with what we have *made* it to be. Now, no one would claim that there ever was or could be a human individual entirely separated from the human collectivity—that is from the "social." Such a person might have the biology of a human being, but no one would regard him as "human," I am sure. Equally inconceivable is anything to which we ascribe the adjective "social" without reference to particular human beings. In other words, human individuals are social or they could not exist, and, likewise, the social is a collectivity of individuals or it could not exist. This is obvious. But let us go further and see where these facts lead. A conclusion somewhat as follows seems inescapable. There is no social-individual dichotomy at all—at least it does not exist in the phenomenon. What does exist is a unit which we might call "human life." We may look at "human life," to be sure, as

² See, for example, C. Kirkpatrick, "Concepts of the Newer Psychology," in *Man and His World*, J. H. S. Bossard, ed. (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1932), pp. 367 ff.

³ Mary A. Shaw, "Social Valuation," in *Man and Society*, E. P. Schmidt, ed. (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937), pp. 765-766.

it is manifested in particular human beings or we may look at it vaguely as "society as a whole," but either way we do a considerable violence to reality.

A separate person is an abstraction unknown to experience, and so likewise is society when regarded as something apart from persons. The real thing is human life, which may be considered either in an individual aspect or in a social . . . ; but is always, as a matter of fact, both individual and general. In other words "society" and "persons" do not denote separable phenomena, but are simply collective and distributive aspects of the same thing. . . . So far, then, as there is any difference between the two it is rather in our point of view than in the object we are looking at. . . . In this sense, and in no other, is there a difference between society and the persons of which it is composed; a difference not residing in the facts themselves but existing to the observer on account of the limits of his perception. A complete view of society would also be a complete view of all the persons, and *vice versa*; there would be no difference between them . . . whatever idea may be in the minds of those who set these words and their derivatives over against each other, the notion conveyed is that of two separate entities or forces; and certainly such a notion is untrue to fact.⁴

However, if we realize that either term ("social" or "individual") only refers to an artificial aspect of the real thing, then we may find the dichotomy useful for purposes of study. Care must be exercised lest people come to assume that the dichotomy exists in the phenomenon, whereas it really exists only in themselves.

It appears that this fallacy of thinking of social and individual as basically different is responsible for the separation of "freedom" and "restraint." According to the common view of the matter, a person enjoys "freedom" in the degree that restraints, (i.e. rules, regulations, laws and conventionalities) are absent. Now if by freedom we mean what has been phrased as "opportunity for right development," that is, if a person is "free or unfree in proportion as he does or does not find himself in the midst of conditions conducive to full and harmonious personal development," this view of the matter appears at once to be superficial. There would be few, I am sure, who would deny that such opportunities as getting an education, choosing an occupation, in accordance with one's own likes, and traveling for pleasure or for occupational advancement were conducive to freedom. Privileges of this sort do, to be sure, from one point of view, seem to result from

the absence of restraints upon persons. But there is also the collateral fact that through the imposition of certain restraints "opportunity for development" is augmented. A simple illustration concerns travel. We Americans enjoy the privilege of traveling over an expansive continent in our automobiles. Whence is this opportunity derived? Certainly not entirely from the absence of restraints. For if there were no traffic lights, speed laws, rules concerning rights of way, passing, and turning corners, taxes to build roads, bridges, and erect signs, travel by automobile would be precluded. One would have difficulty getting safely out of his own city without rules and regulations concerning traffic. The removal of all restraints to a person's use of his automobile would make the use of that vehicle all but impossible and would put his life in great jeopardy.

Similarly, private industry today, hampered as it is by innumerable restraints, restrictions, rules, and regulations, is apt to regard its "freedom" as seriously impaired. Yet, is there not ample evidence to show that the freedom of industry to go on under private ownership at all may thus be better insured against those groups of growing size and prominence who feel that private capitalism has "about run its course"? This illustration is employed only as an illustration. The principle holds whether the illustration is apt or inapt. The example is predicated upon the assumption, of course, that private capitalism ought to be maintained.

Again, there are those loyal followers of Rousseau who maintain that the removal of restraints would restore man to some kind of a pre-civilized (for civilization means among other things "liberty in law") being quite incomparable to man as a member of a group. Proponents of this kind of freedom seem to neglect the important fact that freedom exists quite as much by virtue of restraint as by its absence. Of course, there may be restraint that actually precludes freedom, but the point we are making here is that the setting up of "freedom" and "restraint" as distinct or opposite is, first, an inaccuracy, and second, might lead, in practical situations, to a lessening rather than an extension of the very freedom which they are seeking.

Although the field within which this discussion is centered is virtually boundless, the few illustrations treated may justify a few conclusions concerning the illusion fostered by thinking about life in terms of dichotomies:

1. Most dichotomies are not necessarily incorrect, when qualified. But unless one is fully aware of the numerous limitations upon them, he may make the mistake of assuming that because he has *two* distinct "names" in his catalogue of words, that there are in fact *two* distinct "things." There is more fre-

⁴C. H. Cooley, R. C. Angell, and L. J. Carr, *Introductory Sociology* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1933), pp. 71-72.

- quently only *one* phenomenon, which may have two, or more, aspects, but which remains, nevertheless, a unity.
2. Thinking of these dichotomies as if they were literally true may lead to practical adjustments and programs that are dangerous. Treatment of what seems to be a physical pathology may involve much psychiatry. Our best teachers are learning, or have learned, that an adequate diagnosis and treatment of what seems to be a mental pathology involves, or may involve, physiological aspects. And our citizens who are crying for more "freedom" might do well to determine to

what extent it may be fostered merely by the removal of restraints.

3. The whole realm of thought seems to be affected by this dichotomous fallacy. In fact, during recent years many specific social sciences have reacted against the "either . . . or" terminology because it beclouds the truth. In philosophy we read about "wholeism," in sociology about "organicism," in psychology about "Gestaltism." And it seems significant that in almost all instances there is some basic discovery or group of discoveries which render the old dichotomy out of date.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

MATERIALS AND AIDS FOR TEACHING

In the middle of September an unusual kind of current-events weekly made its bow. *News Map of the Week*, a large, colored, wall map (3 feet x 4 feet), shows places currently important in the news of the week. It is accompanied, on the map itself and in supplementary printed material, by explanatory and illustrative charts, pictorial statistics, diagrams, cartoons, and comment. Historical backgrounds as well as descriptions of current events and issues are given. The combination of a printed summary of the news of the day and a weekly wall map, always up-to-date, is an interesting, if not inexpensive, innovation. Details about this addition to the field may be secured from *News Map of the Week, Inc.*, 1512 Orleans Street, Chicago, Illinois.

In *Asia* magazine for September a new department of interest to teachers of world history makes its appearance: a department on Asiatic archeology. It is authoritative, well-illustrated, and the medium for presenting to the lay public the contributions of Asiatic archeology to human knowledge and affairs. In the September issue, Dr. E. A. Speiser, well-known archeologist of the University of Pennsylvania, contributed the first article, "Closing the Gap at Tepe Gawra."

Begun a decade ago and pushed recently, the excavation of the "Great Mound" in northern Iraq makes it evident that our ideas about the beginnings of civilization in Western Asia will be changed once more. From the end of the Neolithic era in the fifth millennium B.C. to the middle of the second millennium B.C., Tepe Gawra tells a continuous story of the life of people for thirty-five hundred years, a

period longer than that covered without a break by any other site in Western Asia. It is significant that civilization had begun here in Mesopotamia, in the middle of the fifth millennium, when the land of Shinar was still virtually an uninhabitable swamp. Dr. Speiser describes the work done on the "Great Mound," discusses the implications and value of the finds, and indicates a few of the new viewpoints likely to develop as a result of the excavations.

It is not unusual for teachers to feel that, for the time and energy expended, the educational results of work in "current events" and in field trips are less satisfactory than those gained from other phases of their teaching. Dr. Edgar C. Bye of the State Teachers College at Montclair, New Jersey, has done more, perhaps, than any one else to solve the problem of field trips. A great step forward was taken this year when a Bureau of Field Studies was established under his direction at Montclair and a series of studies issued to present and to evaluate the experiences of those who conduct such trips.

The Bureau of Field Studies at Montclair has already issued six or more studies, including *Field Studies in Schools and Colleges*, *Syllabus for a Field Study of Continental United States*, and *Field Studies in Certain New Jersey Secondary Schools*. The first of these, for example, describes field trips in this country and abroad, discusses their nature, philosophy, objectives, and problems, and includes an extensive bibliography.

The School Libraries Section of the American Library Association and the H.W. Wilson Company of New York, publishers, have been issuing a series of reading lists, called *Reading for Background*, to

provide background material for classroom work. Of those already published, three are helpful for the social studies: No. 1, "Background Readings for American History"; No. 6, "Communication Through the Ages"; and No. 9, "The World War." Nos. 6 and 9 are designed especially for high schools. Brief descriptive comments follow each of the items listed.

The efforts of two years in effecting integration in a junior high school are described in the September issue of *The Clearing House* by John V. Maier, principal of the Wilson Junior High School of Muncie, Indiana. Under "Units of Work," he shows how all subjects were made to contribute to the units upon which children were engaged. How this worked out, how teacher-specialists operated in the new set-up, the problems met, and the success of the project, are presented from the standpoint of the practical administrator.

LIGHT AND SIDELIGHTS ON DEMOCRACY

Of great interest to teachers is the portion of Professor Charles E. Merriam's study of democracy, to be published soon, which is printed in the September number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, under the title, "Assumptions of Democracy." Dr. Merriam defines democracy simply as "a form of political association in which the major decisions upon the political policy of the commonwealth are habitually determined by the bulk of the community." Size or particular form of government, therefore, or the organization of its branches, the basis of representation, or similar matters are not determining factors for democracy. There are, however, five assumptions which all who have faith in democracy should understand well.

First is the principle of the dignity and worth of the individual. His personality, in a democracy, must be cultivated on a fraternal and not on a differential principle. On that basis, the principle of special privilege is entirely subordinate. Second is the belief in the perfectibility of mankind. Third is the rule that the gains of civilization must be regarded as mass gains which are to be made available to everyone as quickly as possible. Such gains should not be looked upon as the possession of a group or class, to be apportioned on a restricted basis. Fourth is the practice of seeking popular sanction, through recognized procedures, for the basic policies of state. Fifth is confidence in social change and faith that it can be accomplished better by the peaceful process of consent than by methods of violence.

Dr. Merriam discusses each of these assumptions at length, is at pains to trace their historical growth, and makes impressive the obstacles over which democracy had to triumph. His article is one which will repay repeated readings, from time to time, to

renew faith in democracy and to strengthen understanding and appreciation of it. Many of his phrases are telling and quotable: "Who says liberty says life—richer and more abundant life"; "When the procedures of alleged liberty stand in the way of the throbbing interests of life, it is time to . . . see whether what was intended as a release has become a restriction"; "When the rich or the powerful publicly invoke liberty as a means of private exploitation of the poor and the weak, it is time to examine the nature of the forms and procedures and the spirit in which they are applied"; "Unless the privileged can count upon the control of the government, they often prefer to keep its powers limited and its instruments weak." The complement to this discussion is Professor Merriam's paper on "The Assumptions of Aristocracy," which appeared in the May, 1938 issue of *The American Journal of Sociology*.

For years, the play of special privilege in democracies has been a favorite topic for writers. And it still is. Lincoln Steffens featured it with penetrating insight in his *Autobiography*, and Lord Bryce, two generations ago in his *American Commonwealth*, commented upon it in his observations upon the inefficiency and backwardness of American city government. In the September, 1938 number of *Forum* magazine, Walter Abbott, a newspaper man who has watched the public affairs of Cleveland for three decades, pens a bitter description of "Cleveland: A City Collapses." The reach of his article is more than political; it extends to business, crime, and human character. His circumstantial account of the practical workings of so-called democracy is worth the serious attention of young people no less than their sires.

In the same vein are Harlan Trott's exposé of "The Pari-Mutual Myth" in the same number of *Forum* and George Sokolsky's "Rackets and Labor: A New York Close-up" in the September *Atlantic Monthly*. These accounts from American life and character show the betrayal of those principles of democracy which Dr. Merriam portrayed. The contrast of theory and practice is too great for the lesson it teaches to escape the observer.

Interesting sidelights, doubtless, will be shed upon our democracy as well as upon education in the new series of articles initiated in September by *The Clearing House* under the title, "Folklore of Education." The first example of such folklore to be presented is the American commencement. Porter Sargent, trenchant critic of education, calls it "Commencement: The Great American Festival," a folk celebration staged in honor of the diety, Alma Mater. "Education is the American fetish," and through it lies the way of salvation. It is significant, in view of the attacks upon democracy in many quarters, that the first of this series is an article which attacks an entrenched educational custom of our democracy.

It is pleasant to turn to the more encouraging remarks of Dr. George Stoddard in his address at the N.E.A. convention last summer. As Director of the Child Welfare Research Station of Iowa State University he reported upon the results of studies in the intelligence of young children. The high lights of his address were presented in *The Educational Digest* for September. He said that, according to the best tests of intelligence now in use, intelligence can be improved, and he gave examples of how the I.Q. of children was raised considerably, even feeble-minded children achieving the normal level in I.Q. Placed in good homes under the care of people of high intelligence, the apparently feeble-minded infants of feeble-minded parents became normal in intelligence. Conversely, normal children, placed in a discouraging environment, became dull, even feeble-minded. To teachers, Dr. Stoddard's hypothesis that brightness and dullness are functions of environment to a much greater extent than has been recognized is cheering, although, as he indicates, much yet remains to be done before the role of environment in developing intelligence will be definitely known.

BUSINESS AND GOVERNMENT

In this department, last April, attention was drawn to the fact that, beginning with the February issue, *Fortune* magazine was presenting a series of articles on business and government. In September, a second series on the same subject was begun. *Fortune*, a periodical for business, has not been averse to criticizing principles and practices commonly accepted by business men. In introducing the new series it decries the tendency of business to acquiesce in obsolescence, flatly calls for its progressive eradication as essential to prosperity, and insists that business must regain its lost powers of growth. Mutual suspicion of government and business must be removed, and business should devote itself to its primary duty, namely, making things, more things, and better things. The key to industry's lost powers of growth will not be found in lower taxes or wages, lower or higher prices, but in the land and factories where things are made. We need "a direct and frontal attack upon the problem of production on the part of all concerned with production, to wit, Business, Government, and Labor." The editors of *Fortune* have faith in the assumptions of democracy which Professor Merriam described.

An object lesson in the coöperation of business and government is given in the same issue of *Fortune* in a striking article on "That Wonderful Swedish Budget." It describes how "Sweden has gone in for a far-reaching New Dealism without scaring, over-taxing, or otherwise discouraging private enterprise and investments," using its budget as an important instrument in the process. It is true that many condi-

tions in Sweden differ from conditions in the United States; but Sweden's methods for combating the depression, methods compatible with democracy and free, private enterprise, will repay study by Americans. The Swedish view of their budget as made up of an ordinary budget and an investment budget, the one for current and unproductive purposes, like a household budget, and the other for productive purposes, like the budget of a business, is a sane and business-like view of it. David Cushman Coyle recently suggested that we look at the government budget in this way. With such an arrangement, Sweden has been able to maintain business and popular confidence and to work out a program that lifted the nation out of the depression in five years. There is too much of value in the account of Sweden's economic and budgetary policies and practices to be presented here. But the experiences of the Swedish democracy in the last decade are worth careful study.

SCIENTIFIC SAMPLING OF PUBLIC OPINION

The remarkable exactitude of such polls as those taken by *Fortune* magazine and by the American Institute, or the Gallup poll suggests that at last an accurate method has been found to express what Mr. Average Citizen thinks. It is no longer necessary to rely only upon the vocal ten per cent who claim to tell what the mute ninety per cent are thinking. In *Harper's Magazine* for October Mr. F. S. Wickware of the staff of *Fortune* summarizes the answers of the public to approximately seventy questions on current issues, foreign and domestic, economic, political, and social. His account of "What the American People Want" will be of timely assistance to students of public opinion.

ON THE RADIO

The Town Meeting of the Air is now a radio institution, holding the serious attention of thousands of people and making a strong appeal to youth. This season, the first broadcast of the new series has been scheduled for November 3, with later broadcasts appearing regularly on Thursdays at 9:30 P.M., E.S.T. The twenty-six weekly debates will present current and pressing political, economic, and social problems of the nation. Prominent men and women agreed to participate. Interested groups will be repaid by joining "The Town Hall" (125 W. Forty-third Street, New York) and receiving the materials furnished by the organization on the subjects debated on the air.

Beginning in October, programs sponsored by the N.E.A. went on the air four times each week. Over the Columbia network the N.E.A. this season offers *This Living World* and *Songs and Stories from Far and Near*. *This Living World*, broadcast on Tuesdays, is a continuation of last year's program entitled *Exits and Entrances*. One-half hour in length, dramatic in

character, and suited to junior and senior high schools, the program interprets the world of today. *Songs and Stories from Far and Near*, broadcast on Fridays, dramatizes peoples of the world, for elementary schools.

Over the National network the N.E.A. is presenting *Our Nation's Schools* and *Florence Hale's Radio Column*. *Our Nation's Schools* continues the series of last year, discussing, on Wednesday evenings, school problems of interest to the general public. *Florence Hale's Radio Column*, on Saturday mornings, continues the series of last season, for teachers and parents, on the educational problems of youth.

Printed helps for teachers in connection with these programs may be secured free from the N.E.A.

FILMS

Erpi Classroom Films (35-11 Thirty-fifth Avenue, Long Island City, N.Y.) recently issued a 16 mm. reel, with sound, on *Conservation of Natural Resources*. Dr. George T. Renner, Jr., of Teachers College, Columbia University, collaborated in its preparation. The film shows the waste of timber, oil, coal, water, and soil, and the methods useful in preventing undue loss of the resources of the nation.

AROUND THE WORLD

In *Harper's Magazine* for September, Nathaniel Peffer's "Japan and China: Second Year" carried the story along a year farther than Mr. Peffer's article on the same subject which appeared in the September 1937 issue (see this department in the November 1937 number of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*). Mr. Peffer found little reason to change his prophecy of a year ago that a prolonged war in China would mean the defeat of Japan. He pointed out the stake today of the Western powers in the outcome of the conflict. On many items his résumé is in agreement with Bisson's study, *Japan's Home Front*.

Albert Viton, student and specialist of Near Eastern affairs, uses Egypt to exemplify "The Spoils of Empire—and Who Get Them" (*Asia* magazine for September). It is not unusual, as Mr. Viton says, for students to point to unfavorable trade balances, the burdens of defense and other armament expenditures, and to other costs of colonies as reason why they do not pay. Egypt, he avers, typifies why and whom imperialism pays. The "ruling class"—officials, military officers, directors of companies, and others—benefit from colonies in orders for commodities, salaries, pensions, interest and dividend payments, concessions, special privileges, and in other ways. Students of modern history will find his article illuminating.

The Atlantic Presents, which appeared in July, was the first of contributions to current history to be

made from time to time by the Atlantic Monthly Company. This first number was devoted to Latin-American affairs, "Trouble Below the Border." A dozen articles on Mexico and a half dozen on South America revealed important aspects of economic as well as social, political, and other Latin-American affairs. A wealth of information is brought together in sixty-four pages designed to promote better understanding among the nations of the Western Hemisphere. *The Atlantic Presents* promises to be useful for students of the social studies.

Many of Canada's problems are ours, and *Fortune* magazine's survey of them in September reminds us of our own conflicting interests and the efforts made to cope with them. The background of population, geography, and resources is sketched and Canadian policies, successful and unsuccessful, are described. The paintings by Allen Saalburg, who was sent by the editors to "paint whatever appears . . . characteristic of Canada," greatly enrich the article. High-school students will profit from the study of this panorama of our neighbor.

The Underground Railroad is an old subject for laughable mistakes by pupils. Those who read Henrietta Buckmaster's "The Underground Railroad" in the autumn issue of *The North American Review* will rid themselves of their misunderstandings once and for all. Miss Buckmaster relates episodes, gives names and cites circumstances in the history of the Underground Railroad.

MEETINGS

Immediately following Thanksgiving, on November 25 and 26, the National Council for the Social Studies will hold its annual convention in the William Penn Hotel at Pittsburgh. There will be a series of luncheons and dinners, with addresses, and sectional meetings on both days, together with a general session. One of the principal themes of the convention will be visual education.

The fall meeting of the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers was held in Atlantic City on October 28 and 29. Following the custom of previous years, a conference on teacher education opened the sessions, followed by a discussion on teaching problems. Among the principal speakers at the two-day convention were Professors Hacker and Curti of Columbia University and Dr. Steiger of Simmons College.

The South Dakota History teachers will meet at Mitchell, November 20-23 in connection with the South Dakota Educational Association. At that time problems in the social studies will be discussed, plans will be set up for continued study throughout the year, and the State Historical Society will acquaint the social studies teachers of the state with its progress.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by J. IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

Marcus Whitman, Crusader. Edited by Archer Butler Hulbert and Dorothy Printup Hulbert. Part Two, 1839-1843. Issued by The Stewart Commission of Colorado College and the Denver Public Library, 1938. Pp. xii, 342. Maps and illustrations. \$5.00.

This is *Overland to the Pacific* series, Volume VII. It appears in a dress conformable to the series and it evidently had the advantage of much careful attention from Dr. Hulbert, as well as meticulous editing on the part of Mrs. Hulbert. It brings the story of Whitman down to his return from the East after the famous "winter ride." The book is in two parts: The Biography of Marcus Whitman to page 127; and Oregon Mission Correspondence from that point to page 331.

The second part has by this time become on the whole very familiar to students of the epoch and the episode. While appearing in a variety of connections, the material has all been printed, much of it recently in the books on Spalding and Whitman by Clifford M. Drury. Nevertheless, it is a satisfaction to have it all in one place, thoroughly organized and in typographically perfect form.

In the biographical section, Dr. Hulbert has given us what is doubtless his masterpiece. From the time thirty-eight years ago when Edward Gaylord Bourne read his trenchant criticism of the claims put forth on behalf of Marcus Whitman, historians generally have insisted that the problem of whether or not Dr. Whitman's public services transcended the missionary objectives must be determined on the basis of strictly contemporary evidence. On the other hand, partly because of the paucity of such materials, the advocates of the "Whitman-saved-Oregon" theory continued thereafter as before to draw their conclusions largely from tradition. Bourne, by calling his paper "The Whitman Myth," issued a ringing challenge for the employment of real evidence instead of futile supposition.

From that day to the present, discussion has continued. The champions of the doctrine that Whitman had a political motive in making his famous winter ride, and that he accomplished a political result thereby, have found their footing growing narrower and narrower the more fully the story became documented with contemporaneous letters and other records. When the evidence was at length all in, their argument was gone.

No one has done more or better work in completing the tale of genuine historical material, as bearing on the Whitman question, than Hulbert. And, in the light of all the material, no one has written so perfectly unassailable a picture of that portion of Whitman's life. The story moves, with the inevitability of fate, wholly within the channels finally established by complete and adequate contemporaneous evidence. It is the final justification of the application of the strictest critical rules to historical investigation, the sharpest warning to the mentally untrained to leave complicated historical questions alone.

JOSEPH SCHAFER

State Historical Society of Wisconsin
Madison, Wisconsin

Tecumseh and His Times. By John M. Oskinson. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1938. Pp. xi, 244. \$2.75.

Again has Mr. Oskinson confined himself to a story about Indians. During the last thirteen years, he has written five books which deal with the Indian frontiers. In 1925, came *Wild Harvest*; then *Black Jack Davy*, 1926; after that, *Texas Titan*, 1929; this was followed by *Brothers Three* in 1935. Now we have *Tecumseh*. Indians and their doings have dominated nearly all the writings of Mr. Oskinson, who inherits Indian blood.

This new book, *Tecumseh*, is a story with historical touches. But apparently the author did not think the historical touches needed any support, for there is a total lack of annotation and bibliography. The account is almost equally divided between the action of William Henry Harrison, and the actions of Tecumseh. Perhaps such an arrangement was necessary since Harrison was Tecumseh's chief enemy. The author had to depend upon Harrison's records for much of his material. The Indian policy of the United States government is scored heavily. This helps to increase the greatness and stature of the writer's hero, Tecumseh. The impression is gained that the Indians were nearly always right, and the American settlers always wrong.

In his treatment of William Henry Harrison, Mr. Oskinson tries to be fair, but he does not always succeed in his attempts. It is very easy to cast discredit by judgments, which are made in a period that does not have an Indian danger with which to deal. Harrison may have been too cautious, and too easily

alarmed, but men in times of stress cannot be called upon to reason carefully. People do not attempt to discriminate between the good and bad among their enemies, but tend to classify their enemies as all being bad.

The arguments advanced by the author are not consistent at times with the stand which he takes. His comparisons are not clear cut. His style is hazy. There are too many quotations. Mr. Oskinson tries to make the history of the period seem too simple. The influence and actions of the British among the Indians are greatly discounted. History denies that such British movements were of little value. The argument is advanced that the Cherokees in Georgia had achieved "a state of civilization even more advanced than that of their white neighbors" (page 56). This statement shows that Mr. Oskinson is not averse to going too far in his zeal for the Indians.

There are several mistakes in history. On page 82, George Rogers Clark is mentioned as not being a "hard drinker." The Iroquois are cited as those "who remained friendly with the rebels against English rule" during the Revolutionary War (page 42). The most unfortunate error which the author makes is that of relying upon the writings of General Sam Dale for the episode concerning Tecumseh and the Creeks. Not Dale, but Indian Agent Hawkins is considered the reliable source for this incident. As related by Dale, Tecumseh incited the Creeks to wage immediate war. Mr. Oskinson gives over an entire chapter to Dale's account. This report should be discounted because, at the time, 1811, Tecumseh and the British felt that the Indian Confederation was not sufficiently developed to begin war with the settlers.

The book is good for a few hours of pleasant reading for high school students, but it must be presented with several admonitions.

PHILIP F. WILD

H. J. Widener School,
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

I Am a Man. The Indian Black Hawk. By Cyrenus Cole. Iowa City: The State Historical Society of Iowa, 1938. Pp. 312. \$3.00.

The year 1938 marks the centennial of the creation of Iowa territory and of the death of Black Hawk. It is quite fitting that the State Historical Society of Iowa should publish the volume under review in commemoration of those events.

It is the opinion of this reviewer that Black Hawk cannot rank among the few Indian chiefs who have attained true greatness. His attempt to organize the various tribes of the upper Mississippi valley into a league against the whites was far less effective—and far less menacing—than the similar attempt made by Pontiac in 1763. He did not have the intellectual ability of Sequoyah nor the military genius that char-

acterized every action of Chief Joseph. Yet, making all allowances, the fact remains that for a few years—1831-1838—Black Hawk did play a most important part in the history of the New West; a part which fully entitles him to the remembrance of posterity.

Mr. Cole divides his book into three periods: (1) The Mississippi frontier, (2) The Black Hawk war, and (3) The Sac and Fox frontier in Iowa. The first covers the years from Black Hawk's birth in 1767 through the Winnebago treaty of 1828. The second is concerned with the events of the Black Hawk war through 1832. The last deals with the history of the Sacs in Iowa during the closing years of Black Hawk's life, 1832-1838. It is almost needless to say that most space is devoted to the second period.

The Black Hawk war undoubtedly ranks as one of the major conflicts between red man and white. It is treated with painstaking detail in this work; but of greater significance than the account of battles and tactical details are two salient facts. (1) The war served as a training-school for several men of national prominence—Abraham Lincoln, Jefferson Davis, Albert Sidney Johnston, and William S. Harney being "among those present." (2) It emphasized the white man's insatiable lust for land. This had been shown many times before 1832, but the suddenness and sharpness of the clash in the latter year gauged the force of the Jacksonian migration and was prophetic of Little Big Horn.

The book is written in an interesting and popular style. Never for a moment can the reader forget that Black Hawk is the hero of the story; a hero who limps at times and is ultimately deposed—but a hero none the less. Numerous footnotes have been relegated to a concluding chapter, which is followed by a highly commendable index. Mr. Cole appears to have used Black Hawk's *Autobiography* without stint. He deserves much credit for digging up files of old newspapers and for a fairly thorough—although by no means exhaustive—search of the records in the War Department. Whatever else may be said of it, the book well fulfills its purpose of bringing reliable information about the great Sac chief before a wide reading public.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

American Philosophical Society
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

The Early Stuarts, 1603-1660. By Godfrey Davies. Oxford University Press, New York: The Oxford History of England, 1937. Pp. 452. Maps. \$5.00.

Perhaps no one today is better acquainted with the sources for the history of Stuart England than is Godfrey Davies, who ten years ago edited the *Bibliography of British History: Stuart Period*. Therefore

FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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it is not surprising to find throughout the present volume luminous evidence of the author's wide knowledge of primary material. Three distinct features give unusual value to the work: the well arranged bibliography, critical, full, and charmingly written, is a delight and help to those who wish to know books; the eight maps, apparently drawn by the author, are aptly illustrative of the period; and the large section (pp. 258-413) which treats of social and economic history is not only informative and interesting, but the scholarly use of contemporary pamphlets, memoirs, diaries, poetry, plays, "guides to gentility," etc., to a large extent re-creates the atmosphere of early seventeenth century life.

The first 258 pages discuss the political and religious history of the period. It can hardly be expected that this section would add much that is new or constructive in fact or in interpretation to the clear and forceful presentations already made by Gardiner, Firth, Trevelyan and Montague.

There may be those who would take issue with certain statements of the author; for example, there would be lovers of English literature who might think of Hooker's *Ecclesiastical Polity*, Chaucer, Spenser, and even Shakespeare, when they read the statement that the King James version of the Bible was "the first English Classic." However, as a whole, the book is a thorough and sober treatment of the

period, and one that no serious student of the seventeenth century can ignore.

OSCAR G. DARLINGTON

Hofstra College of New York University
Long Island, New York

First Penthouse Dwellers of America. By Ruth M. Underhill, with photographs by Lilian J. Reichard. New York: J. J. Augustin, 1938. Pp. 155. Illustrated. \$2.75.

This delightful and enlightening little book is intended to give travelers and students a popular account of the life and customs, historical and contemporary, of an old race of Americans, the Pueblo Indians. Miss Underhill has been making anthropological studies of the Indians of the Southwest for years. The tone is sympathetic toward the Indians and their great background and culture.

It is a civilization which began two thousand years ago. The layman is given an interesting introduction to the methods used by the anthropological detective to interpret and reveal that part of the history which precedes written records. There are immigrations, conquests, and admixtures of races and cultures, and then came corn. When they had plenty of food they could settle down, build houses, institute a government, and plan ceremonies. More Indian migrations followed. In the sixteenth century the conquistadores

and padres appeared. Christianity was blended with the ancient ceremonials to produce something different from anything else. Later came the American government agent and his attempt to "civilize" the pueblo dweller.

The coming of the white man modified the way of life, but the religious ceremonials, the family mores and the social codes prevailed. The iron bed from the mail order firm is in the house but beside it lies the mother and the new born babe on a bed of warm sand. The children go to a government school, afterward to a high school, and with a government loan to college. Their real life, however, is still in the pueblo. The arts of basketry and pottery making remain. All they want is corn, beans, squash—and peace.

A notable feature of the book is a series of sixty excellent photographs by Lilian J. Reichard, a secondary school teacher who has achieved in a hobby. The pictures emphasize the commonplace and display fine photographic technique.

The format, though somewhat unorthodox, is pleasing. The captions of the pictures are given as the table of contents. They appear in italics in the body of the book. The proofreader overlooked several errors in spelling and the reader looking for a bit of information may be disappointed to find that there is no index. These are minor points, however, and detract little from a book of much value for the lay mind and secondary school student.

J. I. K.

School Histories at War. By Arthur Walworth. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938. Pp. v, 92. \$1.25.

Students in every land have always been sure that their country never really caused a war, never actually was the aggressor in a war, and never fairly lost a war, but such students have not always realized why this attitude prevailed. To them history has been an accepted, factual narrative—clear, objective, inflexible. The "true" story of their country's clash with another nation on the battlefield was accurately told in the little red or blue textbook which lay before them on the schoolroom desk. During adolescent years there was not even thought of appeal from such an authoritarian source, and post school life only tended to deepen the conviction adopted in those earlier, formative years.

Fortunately, in the United States, we have made some notable progress in recent years toward a greater objectivity in the presentation of causes and results of our periods of armed conflict. But if we think for a moment that we are entirely free from the nationalistic chest-thumping and back-slapping school of history writing, we need only to read *School Histories at War* in order to dispel such illusions.

Even our so called "best writers" of secondary school histories either have seen, or have been forced by various forms of pressure to see, American battlefields and peace conference tables from behind the bias of their own nationalistic breastworks instead of from the high vantage point of unprejudiced historical perspective.

Mr. Walworth has given us a study which has been long overdue, but he has presented it with such clarity and scholarly vigor that it is well worth waiting for. He sets forth a well documented study of secondary schoolbook presentations of five wars in which the United States has participated. The study includes not only the attitudes and interpretations given by nine leading United States history texts on these conflicts, but also the contrasting attitudes, and interpretations of the textbook writers of our former enemies. The Revolutionary struggle, the War of 1812, the Mexican War, the Spanish-American War, and our part in the World War against Germany are all revealed as we and our former antagonists have reflected them through secondary school classrooms. And as might be guessed, the differences and discrepancies are classic.

No student or teacher who reads the representative passages selected by Mr. Walworth from our own and from foreign texts on questions of causes, activities, and results of the above wars, can fail to see the extent to which national pride, individual prejudice, and a provincial climate of opinion have obscured truth and fair analysis. No person who sees his own country's attitude thrown into bold relief against the background of another country's interpretation of the same great conflict or historic incident can fail to obtain a better understanding of the significance of values in human affairs. Truly, Mr. Walworth has given to students and teachers in general, and to high school students and teachers in particular, a volume which is not only brief, concise, readable, and accurate, but one which should cause them to *study* instead of merely to *accept* the writings of their particular text or texts.

F. MELVYN LAWSON

Sacramento Senior High School
Sacramento, California.

The Story of Philosophy. By Charles A. Ellwood. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xii, 581. \$3.50.

One interesting aspect of a period of social change is that it usually gives a fresh zest to the discovery of things as they were in the beginning. This is particularly true when the emphasis is, as at present, upon doctrines and ideas and systems. There are abundant materials for a study of what man has thought about himself, his customs and his institutions. Primitive man made some reflections about

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these things, but it was the Greeks who first achieved sufficient detachment to permit a separation of custom from critical thought. This most recent survey of social thinking begins, therefore, with the Greeks and it brings the survey down to the twentieth century when there emerged a distinct brand of social thinking called sociology. But this survey is one with a difference, for to the author social philosophy is not merely a series of separate thinkers or separate essays about them, although these are clearly marked off, but is a continuous stream. Thus Plato is represented as the thinker who fathered modern collectivism, whether of the fascist or the communist model. But, unlike the soviets, Plato did not believe in a classless society, and, unlike the fascists he would make the philosophers, not the soldiers, kings.

But it is to Aristotle that the author awards the highest praise among all the ancient philosophers, for Aristotle was not only a working sociologist equipped with vision, knowledge and technique, but he was also the father of social science and of biology as well. He not only had knowledge but also the gift of synthesis. Compared to him the Middle Age thinkers while historically of great interest produced little or no original social thinking. Of Utopian and Christian, the author is fair and sympathetic, for he is interested in conserving all valuable social thinking, but his special attraction is apparently the French

school—Montesquieu, Turgot, Condorcet, and Comte. It was Condorcet who founded a school of scientific optimists. He ventured to predict the destruction of the inequality between nations, the perfectibility of man, the universal expansion and diffusion of knowledge. While his optimism has been profoundly challenged, Dr. Ellwood is surely right in asserting that something of Condorcet's faith is indispensable to a continuation of social and political liberalism, and ultimately, of human progress. He hopes, therefore, that "something of Condorcet's scientific optimism, may still animate social scientists and humanitarian workers."

While the author does not ignore the Italian and German thinkers, he gives particular attention to the British schools, including the economic school of Adam Smith and its alternative, Karl Marx. Detailed criticism is given to Herbert Spencer, and to two American thinkers, W. G. Sumner and Lester F. Ward. Spencer wrote and worked when the individualistic school of laissez faire was uppermost. He was opposed to any kind of "regimentation" and he looked forward to the spread of a voluntary co-operative movement as the chief practical solver of social problems. Spencer also believed that the chief means of reducing militarism was through the spread of industrialism, a viewpoint now seriously challenged, since industrialism is itself harnessed to na-

tional militarism. Nevertheless, he had an immense influence in the United States. Sumner's idea of the "forgotten man" as the man who pays the taxes and not as the man on Federal grant, owes much to Spencer. It was Lester F. Ward, however, who countered Spencer's influence. Like Spencer he was a naturalist, for Ward first achieved fame as a naturalist. Yet he later transcended his naturalism and came to repose confidence in the psychic, intellectual and emotional factors in man and in civilization.

Although this volume does not specifically include the more recent thinkers, the general reader is not left without some guidance in studying the immediate present. In fact, one of the chief contributions of the author is in transferring to the reader some of the more intimate phases of classroom criticism of the philosophers studied. To confute the muggy and ignoble fanaticisms of today with a courageous and judicial mind is no small task. This volume achieves this and more. It teaches respect for reason when men in some quarters have taken flight from it. It develops respect for man as a thinker and as a culture builder. It is in this sense that this story of philosophy reveals that of the surveyor.

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College

Kansas City, Missouri

Race: A Study in Modern Superstition. By Jacques Barzun. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. x, 353. \$2.50.

Here is a timely book which should be well received in the general educated circles for which it is intended. Treating comprehensively for the first time the history during recent centuries of the idea of race in western Europe the author presents an illuminating account of the irrationalities and loose thinking which have crept into our ideology and have been perpetuated by the learned as well as by the uneducated.

It should be clearly understood that this is not a study of race. The author is not interested in propounding any new or old theory of race or racial classification. His main purpose is to organize the abundant material available for a history of race-thinking, to show that much which has been written about race and most of what is currently believed in terms of race, are based upon unsubstantiated premises, misconceived notions and confusions of race with nationality, religion, language and culture. Delving into the expressed opinions of prominent contemporary and recent European statesmen and scientists he reveals the profound direct and indirect effects which their ideas of race have had upon past and present policies of empire, international relations and domestic affairs.

Students of history, sociology and cultural forces will be grateful for this introduction to a heretofore

unexplored important field of research. An appendix contains a short anthology of race-thinking and valuable bibliographic notes.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Before Homer. By DeWolfe Morgan. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1938. Pp. viii, 261. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Swift-moving and intriguing action characterizes this story. Its interest centers in the experience of two boys, Destar and Vlako, sole survivors of one of the many tribes that in the prehistoric era wended their way down from the Danube valley toward the more alluring and inviting realms beside the sea known to the modern world as Greece.

The vagaries of the two boys, one a typical idealist with a puerile love and appreciation of the finer things of life and a loyalty which won him not only adoption as the son of the great chieftain, Artemenon, but also innumerable friendships among those who might reasonably be expected to be hostile. The other boy is a scheming, rascally knave. The struggle of the tribes toward the sea, the epitome of civilization to them; their new experiences as they encounter "civilization" with its "refinements" of food, clothing, and residence; their experiences, in trading with the sea-faring Cretan kings who came to their shore with their finely wrought bronze—all these and many more incidents reveal a picture of life in the Greek peninsula that seems to be truly significant and authentic historically for the era prior to that of the Trojan War. In addition, the story value is greatly enhanced by its rich storehouse of mythological and legendary lore so appealing to the boy or girl of junior high school age.

For the senior high school youth, the Minotaur story, for example, and its allegedly historical significance of the terrible tribute imposed by the Cretan kings on their less civilized neighbors will lead to an appreciation of the author's description of the "half human and half brute" creatures dwelling "far to the south, . . . who have learned to do much that still confounds us." For the mature mind, such statements as "go west" and "reach the sea" trace the whole historical cycle of cause and effect back to very early antecedents, and explain many of our struggles and wars. The remark of Pulexioid, the chief: "We are barbarians, you are barbarians; the difference is only that we have lived long beside the sea, and you are newly here," or that of Artemenon who, in rebellion against a religion that presaged naught "but evil and horror and ruin . . . yearned for an interpretation having glory and immortal light as its two legs" makes us realize more than ever how closely akin human nature is, the world over, in all

periods of history.

Though writing primarily for youth, the author has by his subtlety of style written a story that the mature mind, especially of those interested in historical antecedents, can revel in and enjoy. This seems a noteworthy addition to the field of the historical novel for youth.

JUANITA DOWNES

Cheltenham High School
Elkins Park, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Study Aid to Harry Elmer Barnes' History of Western Civilization. By Kerney M. Adams, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College. Two volumes. Louisville: The Standard Printing Company, 1937-38. Pp. ix, 153, vii, 142. 90 cents each.

Any instructor who is interested in finding time for extra-teaching activities, but who also strives to give his students the assistance to which they are entitled, will welcome this contribution to the solution of his problems. The scope and difficulty of Barnes' *History of Western Civilization* make especially desirable, regardless of the function of the text in the course, some such key as this.

The outline, because of its brief and general character, is probably the most vulnerable part of the work. The author, however, has not sought to supply a substitute for the text, to the extent that Geise has in his *Syllabus*; he has rather done what his title suggests. He offers useful directions for obtaining a definite knowledge of the *History of Western Civilization*.

Another legitimate service proffered the student is in the "Questions and Exercises." Here, supplementing the outline, are suggestive answers to the question, "What may I be expected to know?" If an object of an examination is to check up on what students should achieve, rather than to seek what they do not know and what is often needless for them to acquire, then Adams' suggestions are valuable. No competent instructor will slavishly follow these questions, but they are suggestive.

Accurate pronunciation is an index to scholarship, hence it should be more systematically cultivated. Any one who knows the *History of Western Civilization* must admit that there are in it a great many names and terms for which he cannot give an accurate pronunciation. But the more than 400 in volume one, for which the author has worked up the pronunciation "in accordance with the Merriam-Webster phonetic system" were prepared primarily for the student. But even the most learned reader will welcome the "pronunciation of words not entered in the Merriam-Webster Dictionary or in any other

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Some users of the *Aid* will doubtless regret the absence of map studies, but its practical character and meticulous scholarship should win for it wide acclaim.

OTTIS CLARK SKIPPER

The Citadel

Charleston, South Carolina

Early American History. By Jennings B. Saunders. New York, Prentice-Hall Company, 1938. Pp. xxi, 705. \$3.75.

In this volume Professor Saunders begins with the background of the voyages of discovery in the fifteenth century and the antecedents of present-day

American institutions in the European civilization of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries in an effort to explain the factors that influenced the establishment of the English colonies. Though he treats each of the settlements separately at first, he gives considerable space to them in regional groups and eventually considers the nation as a unit after the War of Independence.

The volume is unique in that instead of ending the study in 1763, 1776, or 1783, a practice commonly followed by American colonial historians, the author has included the period of the Articles of Confederation, the Federal Convention of 1787, and the actual establishment of the government under the Constitution. He gives a rather detailed account of the social, economic, political, and cultural developments of the period in a logical arrangement of his material. On the whole he has integrated his data quite satisfactorily and has paid more attention than usual to the social, economic, and cultural life of the people. The general scope of the author's treatment is indicated by the five large divisions of the book: Europe in America (1492-1660); Colonial Expansion and Problems (1689-1763); Colonial Civilization; Revolution and Independence; The Constitution (1763-1789). The volume is reasonably well documented, has an excellent bibliography, and is well indexed. Though it does not contain much new or original material, the author has assembled in a single volume a large amount of interesting and instructive data.

ASA E. MARTIN

Pennsylvania State College
State College, Pennsylvania

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

The Characters and Events Illustrated on State Bank Notes. By John A. Muscalus. Published by the author, 107 West Ninth Street, Bridgeport, Pennsylvania. 50 cents.

A survey to determine (1) what characters and events were illustrated on state bank notes, and (2) to determine some of the more evident relationships among state bank notes.

Struggle Over Slavery. By R. B. Weaver. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois. 40 cents.

The story of slavery in America, including its history, the slavery contests, secession movements, the Civil War, and the rebuilding of the South. Quotes copiously from original sources.

History of the Ordinance of 1787 and the Old Northwest Territory. Prepared for the Northwest Territory Celebration Commission under the Direction of a Committee Representing the States of the Northwest Territory. Marietta, Ohio: North-

west Territory Celebration Commission, 1937. 10 cents.

A supplementary text for school use issued in conjunction with the Northwest Territory Celebration. The many individual studies and writings on the history of the Northwest Territory have been digested and brought together into a correlated record suitable for school use.

War in China: America's Role in the Far East. By V. Fry. Headline Books, No. 13, 1938. Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 West 40 Street, New York. 25 cents.

Presents the historical background of the present Far Eastern problem and examines it and its relations to the United States. Informative, informal in style, with unusual maps. Appealing to high school students.

National Income, 1929-1936. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 10 cents.

Official estimates published by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, of numbers employed, income produced and paid out, types of income payments and per capita income in each of the twelve major industries into which the economic activities of the nation have been grouped.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Applied Economics: The Application of Economic Principles to the Problems of Economic Life. By Raymond T. Bye and William E. Hewett. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1938. Pp. viii, 690. \$3.75.

A revision of a college text on economics.

Beginning the Twentieth Century: A History of Europe from 1870 to the Present. By Joseph Ward Swain. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1938. Pp. xi, 772. \$4.25.

A revised edition of a college textbook.

Building the British Empire. By James Truslow Adams. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938. Pp. xvi, 438. \$3.50.

An interpretation of the history of the British nation from prehistoric times to the American Revolution.

Changing Countries and Changing Peoples: An Introduction to World Geography with Historical Backgrounds. By Harold Rugg. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. Pp. xvi, 586. Illustrated. \$1.88.

The second volume of the Rugg Social Science Course, entitled "Man and His Changing Society."

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The Defence of Democracy. By F. Elwyn Jones. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1938. Pp. 352. \$2.50.

A documented treatise with the thesis of the world-wide threats of fascism to democracy.

Economics and Business Opportunities. By Clyde Beighey and Elmer E. Spanabel. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Company, 1938. Pp. viii, 602. Illustrated. \$1.92.

A textbook for senior high school or lower undergraduate college students. Intended to give an understanding of economic conditions and develop a socially desirable attitude.

England: A History of British Progress from the Early Ages to the Present Day. By Cyril E. Robinson. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1938. Pp. xiv, 892. Illustrated. \$4.50.

A revised edition of a college textbook.

The Expansion of Europe: A Social and Political History of the Modern World, 1415-1815. By Wilbur Cortez Abbott. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1938. Pp. xxx, 517. Illustrated. \$5.00.

A revised edition of a college textbook.

The Far East: An International Survey. By Harold S. Quigley and George H. Blakeslee. Boston: World Peace Foundation, 1938. Pp. 353. 75 cents.

A documented account of recent international relations in the Far East.

A History of Mexico. By Henry Bamford Parkes. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1938. Pp. xii, 432. Illustrated. \$3.75.

A history of Mexico from the time of the Aztecs to the present day.

Problems of Modern Society: An Introduction to the Social Sciences. By Paul W. Paustian and J. John Oppenheimer. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938. Pp. xii, 571. \$3.00.

An introduction to the study of contemporary society for college students.

Social Studies: Intermediate Grades. Book Two. By Herbert B. Bruner and C. Mabel Smith. New York: Charles E. Merrill Company, 1937. Pp. 472. Illustrated. \$1.20.

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The second and third books of a social studies series for the intermediate grades.

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A sympathetic biography of Tecumseh, told from the Indian's point of view.

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The Yankee Cheese Box. By Robert Stanley McCordock. Philadelphia: Dorrance and Company, 1938. Pp. 470. \$3.00.

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